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TWENTIETH CENTURY EDUCATIONAL PROBLEMS

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Twentieth Century Educational Problems

by

Alexander Copeland Millar, A. M.,
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Twentieth Century Educational Problems

Inscribed

to

Bishop E. R. Hendrix, D.D., L.L. D.,
My Teacher And College President,
Who First Suggested To Me High
And Inspiring Ideals For
Educational Organization

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PREFACE.

The discussions following are the result of a profound conviction, growing and partly expressed during the closing decade of the nineteenth century, that there should be a clearer understanding of the special functions of the several types of institution comprising our half-developed but rapidly crystallizing educational system, and that with fuller understanding would come nobler ideals resulting in a more practical because a more fraternal harmony of endeavor; and a mighty uplifting effort in which all those influences now operating divergently shall join forces along lines prayerfully planned for the ultimate good of the common cause.

Several of these chapters were originally prepared for addresses or review articles and have been slightly modified for their present use.

Only a few phases of the higher education have been broached; the treatment has not been exhaustive; nor has an attempt been made to adhere to the rigidly logical in the arrangement of topics.

Preface

Opinions of leading educators have been freely quoted in order that the trend of contemporary thought may be set forth. It is hoped that these opinions, disjoined from their original setting, may not seem to modify the meaning of the writers.

The statistics have been gathered from the latest catalogues and official reports, as far as possible, and may be considered fairly reliable.

Frequent reference to Methodist educational work will seem justified, we hope, by the fact that these discussions were inspired largely by the "Twentieth Century Educational Movement," which was inaugurated by the Wesleyan Methodist Church in England and by the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, in America.

This popular "Movement" now enlisting nearly all the Protestant churches, is gaining in volume and promises to pour a mighty flood of consecrated wealth into Christian institutions of learning for richer and holier service in the Twentieth Century.

Hendrix College, March 1st, 1901.

INTRODUCTION

With modest pride and devout thanksgiving, the brotherhood of Chirstian educators of all denominations, at the close of the nineteenth century has pointed to the achievements in educational progress by which, under the hand of God, from feeble beginnings has been developed the present mighty, though yet imperfectly organized system.

Realizing that numerical increase and growing social influence involve larger and larger responsibilities, this mighty brotherhood, before projecting its enormous force into the twentieth century, pauses to consider the stupendous undertaking of overcoming the world—pauses, not with timid shrinking from a hopeless task, but with calm courage begotten of faith, to decide what readjustment may best serve to win and hold the nations for the Master. As Moses, instructed in all the wisdom of the Egyptians; as

Paul, brought up at the feet of Gamaliel; as Luther, the product of the German university, were prepared intellectually for a heroic and immortal work, so Wesley, as a student of Christchurch College and fellow of Lincoln College, Oxford, received that liberal training which fitted him to become the founder of a cosmopolitan spiritual movement; and so many another master spirit in education has had his Christian character fortified by the intellectual discipline of the higher education. True,—Moses at Horeb must in the burning bush see God; Paul on the Damascus road must meet his Lord; Luther on his knees at Rome must learn that the just shall live by faith; and Wesley in Aldersgate street must through faith in Christ feel his heart strangely warmed. Each must go through refining fire, but each by liberal culture had developed mental character, which, under divine heat became a mighty uplifting force. Consecrated enthusiasm felt the world its parish. Consecrated intellect planned for conquest. The university, through the sanctified culture of trained Christian intellects, was transmitted into cosmic creed, practical polity, and personal

piety. Learning spiritualized has become life. Egypt, Tarsus, Wittenberg, Oxford—each lives through intellectual power refined by heaven's fire.

Although essentially a movement for holier living, Methodism, for example, is the product of profound and thoroughly trained minds, and has always acknowledged her debt to the schools. True to her scholarly origin and her divine mission she has fostered leraning, but with more zeal than discretion has planted many schools in stony ground where quickly springing up they withered for lack of soil.

Like the mighty century just closing, Methodism has been expansive, but like the vigorous century now opening, she must be intensive. The other denominations, also eager in their enthusiasm for broader culture, both mental and spiritual, must, in fact do, stand shoulder to shoulder. Land and sea have been compassed; now there must be deep planting for permanency, and careful tillage for larger and richer fruitage. The pioneer must clear and burn and plow. His son subsoils, fertilizes, and replants, Without compromise of principles or loss of

faith the church must adapt her agencies to an everchanging civilization, not influenced by environment so much as she impresses her own ideals upon her environment. Even the untrained observer sees, in the growth of the public school, in the multiplication of technical schools, and in the marvelous expansion of college and university, that more and more the school is to enter into the life of the people; consequently it is not strange that the leaders of Methodism, analyzing the elements of success, should decide to increase and strengthen her facilities for consecrating intellect and for intellectualizing consecration, and acting forthwith on this profound conviction should set in motion the Twentieth Century Educational Movement for adequate endowment and thorough equipment for the higher education. The practical wisdom of this statesmanlike proposal is demonstrated by its instant approval by all evangelical churches.

On its face the Movement seems to be merely an organized effort to secure a paltry sum which could without impoverishment be given by any one of a hundred wealthy men. In reality the Movement has far deeper significance. It

means not simply to provide for the superior culture of a few who may attend the higher school, but, by the concurrent discussion and the systematic dissemination of enlightened views on the subject, to educate the whole body of church workers to a fuller appreciation of the things of mind, and to the opportunity to transmute dollars into stronger and holier humanity. It also means on the part of many intelligent but hitherto only slightly interested Christians the careful consideration of certain vital, but neglected, educational problems. Such men, immersed in their intense pursuits, are, as their children enter the various schools, vaguely conscious of the trend of current education, but usually they either dismiss the subject as one outside their sphere, or become absorbed in some peculiar phase or fad that has forced itself into their work-a-day experience. Thus they often have prejudices for or against the public school, manual training, commercial education, the college, the university, co-education, and State or denominational schools; but are unable satisfactorily to explain or defend their prepossessions, and yet oftimes they by their social or profes-

sional prestige stand seriously in the way of educational harmony and progress.

As practical wisdom demands the best use of all resources, as genuine Christianity requires conservation of good and the correlation of uplifting forces, the following discussions are submitted, not in a dogmatic spirit to compel acceptance, but to arrest the attention and secure the thoughtful consideration of those men who would intelligently face the issues of the new century.

TWENTIETH CENTURY EDUCATIONAL PROBLEMS

CHAPTER I.

THE RELATION OF THE CHURCH AND STATE TO EDUCATION

If man were a being whose temporal and eternal interests were distinct, or if a clear line of demarcation between the intellectual and the spiritual could be drawn, it might be easy to define accurately the respective spheres of Church and State. But life is a unit with overlapping periods and interblending aspects. Time has not ended, but eternity has begun.

The physical conditions the intellectual, and the intellectual conditions the spiritual; while in turn the spirit uses the intellect, and the intellect uses the body. The State may be concerned solely with the interests that make for worldly welfare, and the Church may treat man strictly as a probationer for heaven, yet both will often deal with the same questions. If honesty is necessary for civic prosperity, it is no less essential to celestial citizenship. If love is the supreme law of the kingdom of heaven, it is not thereby unconstitutional in the realm of Caesar. It is not then surprising that in the field of education Church and State are alike deeply interested, albeit they may approach the question from opposite viewpoints and accordingly may lay stress upon different elements as essential. The State must have trained intellect, but may neglect the strictly spiritual life. The Church must cultivate the religious nature, but may ignore the mental development as such. True, neither course is safe, but each is possible, and history furnishes examples of both.

Without endangering freedom of conscience Church and State may not be organically united,

and yet each in its sphere may serve the other; while both co-operating should strive to bestow upon every youth the very noblest opportunity. Although not a luxury to be enjoyed by a few, education is expensive, hence the State with its large revenue-raising power is able to provide the means.

The Church by high and holy motives may induce voluntary contributions. By her pervasive leavening power she may influence in some degree the spiritual life of all schools whether State or denominational.

In a country like the United States, with a multiplicity of churches, with the State protecting all alike, but directly fostering none, neither Church nor State can honorably withdraw from the work of education. However, it does not necessarily follow that each must attempt to cultivate the whole field. If both had superabundant resources and no phase of educational endeavor were neglected, there could be no serious objection to parallel efforts; but when actual illiteracy is too glaringly in evidence, and the masses are, speaking relatively, receiving too meager a training; and while hardly three in a

thousand enjoy the higher advantages, it seems almost suicidal folly for Church and State to cover in a feeble way practically the same ground. The correlation of forces and the conservation of energy are principles which should be regnant in educational affairs. Naturally the question arises whether it is feasible to apply these principles when the relation of Church schools to State schools is involved?

At the risk of appearing doctrinaire, a theory may be advanced to serve as a basis of discussion in the settlement of this moot question.

I. The Church may be said to be concerned with the problem of being, the State with the problem of doing. The former desires the man to be right, the latter desires him to do right. The Church deals with ideal, the State with actual life. These phases of life are reciprocal, and mutually reflex. This principle indicates roughly the kinds of education which Church and State respectively may properly attempt. The line of demarcation cannot be drawn absolutely, but may be reasonably approximated.

II. Home influences should be potent in the making of the man. The Church is home writ-

ten large; hence, as the youth's distance from the home increases, the force of the larger home should be more and more delivered upon him in order that the spiritual stream may not diminish.

III. The relation of the people to different kinds of education is such, that, in the very nature of the case, the revenue-raising power of the State may with less controversy be invoked for certain phases than for others. This principle in some measure rests on expediency, and so far forth it is secondary to the two principles announced above.

Without fuller argument the general accuracy of these three propositions will be assumed in the discussion of their practical application to twentieth century education.

The home may not be ideal, yet, unless it is actually and flagrantly violating the rights of childhood, it is to be respected and its sanctity safeguarded. No encomium ever pronounced upon the true home is an exaggeration. Consequently the first and best education must be in the cradle and at the fireside. By parental care and instruction the earliest physical, intellectual, and religious wants are supplied. In the

home of wealth the maid and the governess may supplement, but should not supplant the parents. As the sacredness of the trust becomes more fully realized, as the work of the expanding life is more truly appreciated, parenthood will be considered a calling whose duties must not be thoughtlessly assumed; and are to be disregarded only at the peril of immoral interests. Adequate preparation and heroic devotion will be expected. The product of the home will be prized above the output of farm and factory. Here Church and State and school are ideally integrated. Good as the home may be, it does not after the first six to eight years supply all the elements for full and harmonious development. Changing points of social contact, a more formal discipline, and a more accurate scholarship are needed.

At this stage in the educational program the State may very properly provide all the facilities necessary to strictly intellectual development, and the three principles postulated may be fairly well brought into service.

The first principle is recognized by the public school, because, during the greater part of his

public school career, the child still lives at home, where the character is largely developed; while the State through public school facilities is cultivating the facilities and furnishing materials for the more varied use of all the mental activities. The man may be thoroughly good without this public school training, but his usefulness would be limited; hence in giving the child elementary schooling the State prepares him to increase his usefulness.

The second principle is met, because the home with its multiplied opportunities may dominate the religious life, and the Church, through the Sabbath school and divers instrumentalities, begins to supplement the home influence, and to accomplish for the spiritual life what the State is doing for the intellectual.

The third principle here finds its readiest application, because the tax is paid by the community benefited, and practically all the children are reached; hence objections to a public school tax are few and feeble.

For harmonious co-operation in public school endeavor certain principles must guide the several instrumentalities involved.

I. The Church must studiously avoid any tendency to exploit the public school in the interest of any particular denomination, or in antagonism to any recognized denomination; but should be satisfied to exert her influence through the home and by other legitimate agencies. Appreciating the value of community training the Church will seldom enter the realm of elementary education, except to provide for those whose domestic environment is radically and persistently inadequate.

II. The State must yield to no denominational demand for distinctively sectarian instruction or sectarian teachers as such; but, recognizing that the best moral life is religious and that it seldom reaches its fullest flower outside of some denominational relationship, the State must respect all, not by ignoring all in selecting undenominational teachers, but by employing those who represent the best religious life of the several denominations; in other words, without allowing her elementary schools to become in any sense sectarian, the State must safeguard the religious interests of every child by keeping irreligion out of the schoolroom. Taxing all for the people's

school, the State may justly require all to accept her training, unless satisfied that the child is receiving adequate instruction in other schools. Out of respect for the private conscience the State will not in any wise hinder voluntary enterprise, whether Church or private, in elementary education; but, to protect the child against possible parental or ecclestical narrowness, must demand that private schools shall conform to certain reasonable requirements.

III. The home must not exact of the school religious instruction more sectarian in one direction than it would be willing to grant to other sectarians in a different direction. It is highly important, both for the maintenance of genuine domestic religion and for the welfare of the child, that the home should not, because the child is enjoying school and Church privileges, lose the full sense of responsibility for its religious instruction. Perhaps the greatest danger in American life to-day is the shifting of responsibility for ethical training from the home to the Church and the school. These agencies are intended to increase the

child's advantages by supplementing the influences of home, not by transplanting nor by supplanting them.

Without discussing the details of secondary education, let it here suffice to postulate that at the age of fourteen the child should be ready for more advanced or new subjects and for somewhat different methods of teaching and discipline. These should be provided in the public high school or in the denominational academy.

In every city and town and in rural districts where numbers and means permit, provision should be made at public expense to carry the school four or five years beyond the elementary period. Here again home and State and Church may co-operate as fully as in the lower school. However, there are many communities in which circumstances forbid the maintenance of strong, permanent secondary schools, yet the youth in these less favored localities are by nature as much entitled to the higher training. Shall the State undertake to meet their needs by organizing boarding departments in the city high schools or by establishing country high schools?

By such a plan the first principle may be worked out, since the instruction may be made technical rather than liberal; but the conditions of the second and third principles could not be properly achieved. The youth, still immature and needing the influences of home, would be wholly removed from the home, and yet few compensating safeguards would be supplied by the State. If the urban school must receive the non-resident youth the ordinary discipline based on the co-operation of the home must be modified, or else the non-resident youth would lack proper supervision. Either alternative would affect injuriously the one or the other class of students, the local or the non-resident; a mixed discipline is fraught with many difficulties, and is peculiarly difficult to administer.

To organize separate country schools would raise questions connected with taxation. The communities supporting their own high schools could not justly be taxed twice. The rural districts with income insufficient to maintain good elementary schools should not be compelled to carry the additional burden, while the large numbers, who, acting under the second prin-

ciple, would patronize schools in which the Church would supply the religious influence, ought not to be forced to pay for a school which they can not use.

If the principles enunciated are approximately feasible, the State can legitimately support only secondary schools for the youth who is still in the home. The Church feels that at this point plainly begins her responsibility for the etsablishment of schools; and this solicitude should be respected and strengthened by the State, because the State can not, like the Church, supply that strong ethical element which absence from the home necessitates.

The denominational academy is a practical necessity, and with proper encouragement will be founded wherever there is an opening. Missionary zeal and denominational self-interest will make it strong and reduce the student's expenses even more than the State would attempt to do. The State should clearly announce the inclusion of such schools in its educational scheme, and should accord them recognition and protection by charter, plainly defining their duties, their privileges and their limitations, and by inspec-

tion and supervision hold them to reasonable standards. Free from the fear of State competition, but required by the State to meet certain conditions, these schools, instead of being educational Ishmaelites and nondescripts, would have a well recognized place and become real factors in the educational system alongside the schools of the Church and of the State.

Beyond the high school, for those who seek broader opportunities, is the college, which takes the still immature but rapidly maturing youth, and for three or four years after the secondary period, gives training for mental and moral culture. The college seeks to form the man, not the artisan as such nor the professional. Its work, then, is largely, almost exclusively, with life development, and as this work must usually be done far from home, the Church rather than the State should be charged with the important duty. Because of the small number who will receive the college education and the apparent remoteness of the college from the work of the world, the justice of taxing all for the support of the college is not so obvious even as in the case of the high school. The Church believes

in the largest possible development of the man and stops not to count values in the terms of the mart, hence the Church instinctively feels obligated to maintain the college. Held morally responsible for their work by the State, limited to a legitimate sphere by definite charter, sufficiently supervised to guarantee respectable standards, and protected from the overwhelming competition of a single institution backed by the commonwealth, the denominational college would render the State rich service in sending out men of symmetrical character and holy purpose, loyal to both Church and State, because indebted to both and prejudiced against neither.

Altogether beyond the high school, because requiring at least the secondary scholarship; and in many respects beyond the college, because requiring collegiate maturity and preferably collegiate training, stands the university, an institution for those who know their bent and who seek profound scholarship or definite preparation for some special pursuit. The first principle finds easy application; because the genuine university will receive only persons who have determined to specialize and are qualified by

preliminary training to do so. As the State is concerned in having thoroughly trained citizens for farm and for factory, for office and for school, it may very consistently maintain an institution to sharpen into specialists those who have equipped themselves to receive the special training. The second principle may not be so obvious in its application, since the student has presumably emerged from the supervision of the home. Yet, though now perhaps severed from the home of his youth, he has reached that maturity which qualifies him to become a home-maker, and may be regarded as contemplating that responsibility, and the sense of approaching responsibility will steady him, while his personal relation to the Church will bring the new relation into his life in the most practical way.

The third principle is supported by the belief current among the people that a well trained worker in any field renders valuable service to the public, and by the growing desire among all classes for special preparation for practical life. Hence taxation for the university seems reasonable. Besides the cost of a great and constantly expanding university can more readily

be assumed by the State than by the individual or the Church. The aggregate expense is very large, but the per capita tax upon the citizen is small.

If, for any reason, it were deemed expedient to organize a strictly collegiate department in connection with the university, such department, like the denominational college, should derive its support from those who demand it. Only in this way can the State avoid the unseemly and ungenerous competition with the separate colleges, which are a necessity to the life of the people, and which a high sense of honor would lead the State to protect.

To prevent misunderstanding the following explanatory observations must be made.

I. The terms "Church" and "State" are used to represent respectively any distinct denominational or civic unit.

II. The history of education as well as the existing conditions in the several churches and States are not to be ignored. The development of institutions in States so different in their population, for example, as Massachusetts, Michigan, California, Mississippi and Tennessee,

will preclude close conformity to one type even under the influence of the same general principles. Each church and each State will have its own viewpoint and will solve its own problem in its own way. There may thus be unity of purpose without absolute identity in results.

III. Strictly private and undenominational educational enterprises have not been discussed, because Church and State cannot undertake either to depend on them or to oppose them. Under certain circumstances they may be potent factors, but as related to Church and State they must be considered incidental.

IV. The argument for a genuine university, maintained in each State at public expense, is not intended to prevent each denomination from establishing a great university to stand at the head of its own system of schools, but, as such university would be located and managed with reference to the needs of the Church, the State should not depend on it to meet the popular demand for facilities for the education of specialists.

V. Each denomination is really under the necessity of having at least one great central uni-

versity with which its colleges may be correlated. Each church must have a symmetrical system, topped by an institution in which leaders thoroughly in sympathy with her policy and polity, may be trained.

VI. Carrying out Washington's great purpose, a national university in the District of Columbia should be organized to be the complement and the supplement of all. With the unrivaled facilities offered by the various departments at Washington, an institution, unique in character and interfering with no other could be maintained at comparatively small cost. Its establishment would mark a new era in American education and would be the most appropriate tribute which Congress could pay to the memory of the noble Washington.

VII. It is assumed that in the evolution of educational institutions many of the existing ones are merely transition forms. The universities of the nineteenth century are merely overgrown collges, and have neither dropped altogether the ways ot the college nor put on all of the dignity of the twentieth century university. During the last decade there has been a rapid

differentiation of institutions, which will doubtless continue till college and university shall each occupy a place conceded and respected by the other.

CHAPTER II.

THE GENUINE UNIVERSITY.

The last thirty years have witnessed marvelous changes in curriculum and method of university and of college. Most of these institutions are still in the throes of evolution amounting almost to revolution, but, judged by their recent progress, they will, in the next decade, adjust themselves more fully to their new conditions and gird themselves for the strenuous race of the beckoning century.

At present the universities are overgrown colleges, and frequently their supporters endeavor to justify their retention of strictly collegiate functions by rebuking the genuine college for undetraking to carry on the real work of the college proper.

In order that the purpose of this discussion may at the outset be clearly apprehended, the leading proposition is briefly premised, as follows: *In their purpose and methods there is a*

broad and marked distinction between the university and the college, and the time has come when the strong leading institutions should recognize this distinction by reorganizing as genuine universities without undergraduate departments.

Whatever may have been the conditions in the past, it is evident that according to their education our people are divided into three classes: (1) By far the largest class consists of those who have acquired merely the rudiments, sufficient to enable them to read and intelligently to discharge the ordinary duties of the common walks of life. (2) The second class is small and includes those who have been trained to habits of correct reasoning and have delved in a variety of subjects far enough to be able to appreciate them thoroughly and to understand reasonably well any topic in literature, science, philosophy, politics, or religion; whose education, in short, is liberal, both for enriching and strengthening. (3) The third class, also small, embraces those who by special attention to a few subjects have prepared themselves to teach, or to investigate further, or to follow some profession requiring

unusual knowledge and skill. Without the first class are the illiterate. Between the first and second are many who have gone beyond the rudiments and yet fall far short of a liberal education. Among the third class are some who, outside of their specialty, would fall into the first class.

Now, after the purely domestic training, there are three distinct periods in the education of every man who is liberally and professionally educated. From the age of seven to seventeen, as far as his school life is concerned, he is learning those things which are necessary to save him from pitiable ignorance and which are fundamental to all further intellectual advancement. From seventeen to twenty-one he is discovering himself, and largely increasing his stock of information and forming character. During the last three years of the first period there is a gradual shading off so that the transition, except as it is marked by a change of schools, is not abrupt. At twenty-one the student is fully a man, but merely a man knowing his intellectual bent and ready to follow it further, through three or four years of intense applica-

tion to his specialty. At twenty-five he should be a man plus the qualifications for his life work.

Corresponding to these three periods are, or should be, three sharply differentiated schools, (1) elementary, including high schools and academies; (2) colleges, and (3) universities.

The elementary schools are usually public schools. The children are under complete parental control and oversight, except for a few hours five days in the week. The parents may largely control the school itself. In the large towns and in cities the high school usually crowns the system. This is the finishing school for the majority and must be the liberal institution, the college, for the masses; and at the same time it should be the preparatory school for the prospective collegian. Under the present management of colleges and universities it is often next to impossible for the public high school efficiently to prepare students for college, hence private academies or fitting schools have been established in many places. While these will, doubtless, always be necessary for students in sparcely settled districts, the system should permit every boy in town or city to prepare for

college in his local high school. The public school need not be further discussed in this article, except as it may incidentally bear upon the college question. The college should receive the seventeen-year-old boy and devote its energies to the making of the man. Specializing should be studiously avoided, lest the man be dwarfed in the making of a specialist weak for lack of true manhood. The university should receive graduates only and do only post-graduate and professional work. The merits of the whole question may be summed up in the argument for the last proposition.

I. For the best interests of the student he should not pursue his under-graduate or bachelor's course in a university. Character, broad, strong, liberal, is the one thing about which all education should be deeply concerned. That education which neglects or depreciates character training is dangerous. That education which does not make character training its supreme aim is weak. The boy of seventeen or even nineteen, coming from high school or academy, is an embryonic man. He has all of a man's appetites, passions, ambitions, and

weaknesses, without a man's experience and strength. Left largely to his own pilotage, he is in great danger of drifting into nameless evils, or at best of becoming one-sided and abnormally developed. Guided by a wise and loving counselor, he will avoid perils otherwise unseen and profit by the experience of his elders. In the present so-called university, the undergraduate, no matter how tender his age, nor how little his experience, is put merely under the nominal oversight of a professor, whom he seldom meets; but he is in reality turned loose, one of a thousand, to drift for himself. He may be absent from his room every night, attending balls, theatres, and wine or card parties, and ranging freely in all the city's haunts of vice; but, if he escapes the police, is not seen drunk on the campus, attends his classes with some degree of regularity, makes fair recitations, and passes on examination, he will graduate, an A. B.; but, if not a moral wreck, yet lacking in that strong development of true character to which he is justly entitled. In the small college (every *college* should be small), while he is treated as a man and put upon his honor, he is still under

certain reasonable regulations, and goes in and out daily before the faculty and the whole student body in such a manner that his habits are known and, if bad, corrected; or he is dismissed. He is personally acquainted with every professor, and under the immediate guidance of the president, who studies his character, points out his weaknesses, and helps him to develop symmetrically. The university president or professor may be a great man, but, failing to touch the student, imparts little of his personality. Christ, the great teacher, came in contact with those whom he healed and blessed. The most successful teachers have followed his example. The university, if unmindful of these lessons may invite the unformed youth into an environment dangerous in the extreme.

II. By requiring comparatively few courses, allowing a wide range of electives, and permitting the student at entrance, or at the end of the freshman year, to choose his electives, the university with undergraduate department defeats the second purpose for which a student attends college, namely, the deliberate and intelligent choice of his life work. The present require-

ments and privileges of the university are practically based on the assumption that the matriculate is a man with perfected plans and ready to specialize almost from the beginning; while, as a fact, the youth, fresh from high school, is a boy, having studied only a few things, and these elementary; having seen little of real life, and having tried his powers definitely on nothing that is related to his future business or profession. This youth may imagine that he has an aptitude for law, and elects accordingly, not dreaming that the study of geology might reveal in him a scientific bent wholly unsuspected. The university may help this boy to become a weak lawyer, when he ought to be a successful geologist. The small college, offering only a few electives, takes the student through a wide range of subjects, thus trying his powers in almost every direction, and doing this, too, under the close personal guidance of intimate friends, his teachers, who, freely conferring and comparing his proficiency in the several studies, can advise him intelligently concerning his vocation. Peculiar to American civilization are its changeableness and its uncertainty. Men, influenced by fancy, enter the

wrong profession and change to another in middle life, failing in the first for lack of aptitude, in the second for want of preparation. The university with undergraduate department may in practice virtually relegate many a bright man to needless mediocrity, to possible failure.

III. By allowing the student to devote much time to a few studies and to omit many, the so-called liberal institution takes the liberality and richness out of education. The university bachelor may have studied physics, chemistry and biology until he can discourse fluently about electricity, hydrocarbons, and biogenesis, but he may know little of botany, geology, mineralogy, and astronomy. While the small college does not go to the bottom of any subject, it requires the student to take a sufficient number of courses to save him from the embarrassment of dense ignorance of common subjects. A liberally educated man must know somewhat of many things so that he may never walk unsteadily.

IV. With youthful instructors in the lower classes and the lecture system in the higher classes the make-believe university does injustice to the student. Attracted by the fame of Prof.

Syntax and Dr. Atom, a student enters the university and pays $100 to $150 for tuition and correspondingly high rates for board and lodging. For the first year and often through the second he is instructed by young assistants and is fortunate if he even meets the celebrated men for whose instruction he has paid so high a price. During the junior and senior years he ruins his chirography taking notes as the learned professors lecture (?) on delicate points which an undergarduate does not appreciate and soon forgets, or on some subject much better presented in a good text-book. During the first two years the student is disappointed in the instructor and during the last two in the instruction. In the small college scholarly and experienced professors teach the lower as well as the higher classes, and instead of allowing the student to sleep under lectures and to play while preparing for a quiz, they develop him by hard lessons and daily exercises which compel the student rather than the professors to work. Let the two be separated and each stand on its own merits. The university has soundly berated the colleges retaining preparatory departments. The logic is

good, but logic applies with even greater force to the abolition of the undergraduate department of the university; because the transition from preparatory school to college is less marked than that from college to university.

V. By attempting to raise its undergraduate standard above that of the genuine college the university can disorganize all classes of schools, and work a great hardship upon all lesser institutions and so upon the people. By demanding too much in Latin, Greek, and mathematics for admission to the freshman class the university can make it practically impossible for public high schools to prepare students. The public high schools, unable to prepare students for the university and unwilling to send them to the smaller colleges, graduate the youth without any predilection for the more liberal education. Few boys can afford to attend the large university in which the expenses are seldom less than $500 a year, and yet they hardly dare enter the small institution, because the university and its feeders, the academies, have brought college education under suspicion by looking askance at college degrees. The academy education is

more expensive than collegiate and yet does not take its place in producing liberally educated men, because the academy has in view only one thing, preparation for a university freshman class. In order to make their degrees equal to a university degree the colleges are almost forced to attempt too much and cannot succeed without large endowments. At present there is inadequate correlation of educational forces and little conservation of educational energy, and the university is the disturbing element.

VI. The university may prevent the proper multiplication of liberally educated men in the professions. To complete both a bachelor's and a professional course in a university requires so much time and money that few men will undertake it; especially, as nearly all professional schools receive men without collegiate training and must offer elementary courses adapted to their limitations. As a public school or academy student may easily enter the professional schools, only a genuine love of culture or a keen appreciation of ultimate values will urge a student through a long and expensive bachelor's course.

The case against the university as at present

organized is strong. Almost anyone of the specifications is convincing. The American people, patient but practical, will demand that the university take the place that will enable it to become a real leader.

How may this be accomplished?

Let the richly endowed universities resolve to receive no undergraduates after a certain date. Let them begin their post-graduate courses about one year lower than at present, and require two years' work for masters' degrees and four for doctors'. Let the well-endowed academies become colleges, and let the colleges receive into the freshman class the youth of sixteen or seventeen who have a year less of Latin and Greek, but more of English, literature, science, history, and modern language. While offering classical, literary, and scientific courses, with a few electives in each, let these colleges require a fair knowledge of many subjects rather than special training in a few, and pay particular attention to the development of character. With six or eight good professors, with moderate equipment, and a small endowment, a small college may do honest and satisfactory work

with 200 to 300 students, and many such institutions should spring up and thrive. The universities devoting all of their royal incomes to post-graduate and professional courses would attract a large and constantly increasing number of the college graduates. Admitting only degree men to their professional departments, the universities could so strengthen their courses that the best minds would be drawn, and in time it would become a reproach to take a course in a professional school which did not exact high scholastic entrance requirements. Thus our specialists would become more liberal and at the same time stronger specialists. The colleges, co-operating with the high schools all over the land, would be filled and the number of liberally educated men and women would be greatly multiplied. Unembarrassed by invidious comparison with the university, the colleges would become its loyal supporters, and the university, dependent on them for its material, would foster and encourage them. Such a university would, doubtless, at first lose in numbers; but, as the sower throws away handfuls and is poorer till the harvest fills his barns, so must the university

gain by loss. And even were there no ultimate increase, yet, as it is the duty of the educator to set a high standard and work toward it at whatever cost, so the university may be an exemplar and hold itself ready for sacrifice to maintain a lofty ideal. With their millions at interest these institutions could be independent of mere numbers. The pride in numbers has possessed them to their hurt.

The time is ripe for a change. In our vast population a few great colleges cannot educate all aspirants; nor can they afford to ignore and disparage the small college. They fear to lower their entrance requirements, and they ostracize the college that demands less. Let them abolish their undergraduate courses and at a bound rise to their proper sphere. Will these strong institutions continue to be obstructionists? or will they clear the way for a grand upward movement, and as worthy leaders press forward to the mighty achievements promised by the new century?

CHAPTER III.

OPINIONS CONCERNING THE UNIVERSITY.

Prof. Ladd, of Yale University, writing twelve years ago, thus argues:

"In this country, up to the present time, there has existed no form of educational institution which we can call the American university, if by this term we intend to designate something other and higher than the American college, with its possible attachment of one or more professional schools. Any one possessed of the requisite information knows at once what is meant by the university of France, the English universities, or a German university; but no one can become so conversant with facts as to tell what an American university is. It would be by no means fair, however, to sum up the history of the

development of this institution with the curt sentence: 'There are no universities in America.' A large number of schools have sprung up in our West, some private and some state institutions, most of which have but veiled thinly over their deficiencies in scientific quality, equipment, and force and aim in teaching, by putting on the title of university. Yale (and to a greater extent, Harvard) has changed rapidly in the effort to validate this title. Johns Hopkins has made a noble start toward the realization of a high ideal, and various other institutions have given notice of their claims to be, or intentions to become, genuine universities. Still, it is scarcely less true than it was a score of years ago that, although there may be universities in America, no one can tell what an American university is."

While it may not be easier today than when Prof. Ladd wrote, to select a university and affirm that it is *the* American university, still it is undoubtedly true that several of the older institutions have so rapidly developed, and several new ones have been so organized that it is not

difficult to separate them from the other four hundred and say that they are *the universities* of America, not because of their endowment and large enrolment, although these are significant, but because of the character of work which they are more and more attempting to do.

Prof. Ladd very properly distinguishes four grades of education: the primary, the secondary, the higher, and the university; the last being in a very inchoate condition. He further says:

> "The first-rate scientific schools and the colleges give what is entitled to be called higher education. Beyond all this lies so much of the strictly university education as is mingled with the later years of the higher education, or is taught in so-called graduate courses or in professional schools, so far as the latter are conformed to the university idea. It will appear that one difficult problem connected with the development of the American university concerns the right separation of the higher education into the two parts of which it has actually come to consist, so that, by combining one of these parts with the second-

ary education as it now exists, we may gain a broad and solid foundation upon which to build the university education. The university part of the higher education as it now exists will, of course, then have to be joined with the other kindred elements in so-called post-graduate courses, so as to furnish a genuine university education of the greatest possible wealth and solidity. When this problem is practically solved, therefore, we shall have three instead of four grades of education; these will be, the primary, the secondary; and the higher or university education, but the two latter will probably have more significance than they now have."

In his further development of the subject Prof. Ladd argues that university education will practically begin about the middle of the present college course, and the college will become a secondary institution, for he says:

"It appears that the problem of the development of the university in this country is largely the problem of securing satisfactory secondary education."

Opinions

President Gilman, of Johns Hopkins University, at the International Congress of Education, in 1893, used the following language:

"The first function of a university is the education of youth who have been prepared for advanced work by previous discipline in certain branches of knowledge. Whatever else the university undertakes, it is a place where the choicest minds receive the best culture, are admitted to rare opportunities, and are inspired by living examples of intellectual excellence. It is a society where thorough preparation for intelectlual exertion is the condition of admission, and lofty devotion to ideals the condition of honor. University education as distinguished from collegiate implies that the student has formed already the habits of attention, memory, discrimination, classification, judgment. Maturity of mind is requisite for the freedom implied in advanced work. The training in our country has usually been acquired in college; formerly it could only be there received. But high schools, academies, and private seminaries in many places are now so

thorough that they have virtually taken the places which early in the century were held by the colleges; and the colleges, by raising their terms of admission, have occupied the years which might otherwise be given to university work. Consequently there is no agreement of opinion on the relative spheres of the school, the college, and the university. It would be well if Americans could agree on the proper limitations of the school and the college.

"The second function of a university is the conservation of knowledge. This is accomplished by bringing together all the records of human experience, and by the engagement of scholars in the work of interpretation. Within its walls there should be comfortable stalls for those who are willing to devote their lives to the study of antiquity, whose pleasure it is to trace from their origin the language, the laws, the religions, the customs which we have inherited from our remote ancestry. There should be other chairs for those who are able to collect, arrange, describe, and interpret all natural objects which can be

brought together in a museum. The fine arts, too, should have their votaries, and the best that the world has produced in architecture, sculpture, and the pictorial arts should be presented to the eyes of impressionable youth, with such instruction as will enable them to discover and appreciate their merits. Libraries and museums are the dwelling-places of universities.

The third function of a university is to extend the bounds of human knowledge. Call it research, call it investigation, call it scientific inquiry, call it the seeking for the truth—never has the obligation been so strong as it is now to penetrate the arena of the world in which we dwell, to discover new facts, to measure old phenomena, and to educe principles and laws that were written in the beginning but have never yet been read by mortal eye. To the progress of observation, measurement, and experiment, universities that are worthy of the name are bound to contribute.

The fourth function of the university is to discriminate knowledge. The results of

scholarly thought and acquisition are not to be treasured as secrets of a craft; they are not esoteric mysteries known only to the initiated; they are not to be recorded in cryptograms or perpetuated in private note-books. They are to be given to the world, by being imparted to colleagues and pupils, by being communicated in lectures, and especially by being put in print; and then subjected to the criticism, hospitable or inhospitable, of the entire world. That institution has a restricted sphere that is unknown beyond the circle of its own alumni. It should not claim to be a university. It is better to be the best of colleges than to be the worst of universities. Publication should not merely be in the form of learned works. The teachers of universities, at least in this country, by text-books, by lyceum lectures, by contributions to the magazines, by letters to the daily press, should diffuse the knowledge they possess. Thus they are sowers of seed which will bear fruit in future generations."

President Eliot, of Harvard University, in 1885, in an address on "Liberty in Education," said:

"So fast as American institutions acquire the resources and powers of European universities, they will adopt the methods proper to universities wherever situate. At present our best colleges fall far short of European standards in respect to numbers of teachers, and consequently in respect to amplitude of teaching.

"As yet we have no university in America —only aspirants to that eminence. All the more important is it that we should understand the conditions under which a university can be developed—the most indispensable of which is freedom of studies. A university must give its students opportunity to win distinction in special subjects or lines of study. The uniform curriculum led to a uniform degree, the first scholar and the last receiving the same diploma. A university cannot be developed on that plan. It must provide academic honors at graduation for distinguished attainments in single subjects. These honors encourage students to push forward on single lines; whence arises a demand for advanced instruction in all departments in which

honors can be won, and this demand, taken in connection with the competition which naturally springs up between different departments, stimulates the teachers, who in turn stimulate their pupils.

"A university must permit its students, in the main, to govern themselves. It must have a large body of students, else many of its numerous courses of highly specialized instruction will find no hearers, and the students themselves will not feel that very wholesome influence which comes from observation of and contact with large numbers of young men from different nations, States, schools, families, sects, parties, and conditions of life. In these days a university is best placed in or near the seat of a considerable population; so that its officers and students can always enjoy the various refined pleasures, and feel alike the incitements and the restraints of a highly cultivated society. These conditions make it practically impossible for a university to deal with its students on any principle of seclusion, either in a village or behind walls and bars."

Opinions

In 1894, President Eliot wrote:

"To my thinking the present artificial and arbitrary distinctions between elementary schools and secondary schools, or between grammar schools and high-schools, have no philosophical foundation, and are likely to be profoundly modified, if they do not altogether pass away. In the same sense, I believe that the formal distinction between college work and university work is likely to disappear, although the distinction between liberal education and technical or professional education is sure to endure. I have never yet seen in any college or university a method of instruction which was too good for an elementary or a secondary school. There is, to be sure, one important element of university work which schools and colleges cannot participate in, namely, the element of original investigation; but, although this element is of high importance, and qualifies, or flavors, a considerable part of university work, there remains in all large universities, and particularly in those which make much of professional training, an immense body of purely disciplinary work, all

of which is, or should be, conducted on principles and by methods which apply throughout the whole course of education."

At the meeting of the Southern Educational Association in 1896, President R. H. Jesse, of the University of Missouri, in an admirable address on "Articulation of Schools in the State," expressed the following sentiments:

"Articulation is hindered not only by the spurious college, but also by the spurious university. Many of our American universities have preparatory departments, which compete with the high schools, and almost all have departments of law and medicine, which, by accepting students without examination, compete with the grammar schools. Thus many universities (so called) have within their walls students of all grades from the kindergartner up to the bachelor of arts. Where the institution that should be the head of the State system of education is in this condition, rational articulation is impossible. This condition is often the result of circumstances that are beyond control; but in such cases little can be done until the university

(so-called) rises gradually to higher ground. The real university, while dealing liberally with special students, should require for courses leading to degrees a good college education. For the function of the real university is professional work in law, medicine, technology, or academic studies, based upon good college training. Surely this is the model to which all universities should strive. When they reach this stage of development the work between them and the high schools would naturally be done by the normals raised to higher grade and by the denominational and agricultural colleges."

In 1893, Chancellor J. H. Kirkland, of Vanderbilt University, in his inaugural address, spoke as follows:

"A very great advance in educational work has recently been made in the establishment of a proper distinction between college and university work. These terms, so long used indiscriminately, are beginning to have a definite and distinct meaning. The college is the institution which prepares a young man for his professional school, or gives him that

ordinary amount of culture that every one who can afford it ought to have. It culminates in the Bachelor degrees. The university takes up work where it is left off by the college. Its courses are intended for those who desire a more advanced and specialized training in science or literature, particularly for those who intend to make teaching their profession. It adds from three to five years of study to the Bachelor courses, and gives as the reward for this work all Master and Doctor degrees. The development of true university work is transforming the whole system of American education. It is sending into our schools men who have some adequate preparation for the tasks they are undertaking. It is equipping others for general literary or scientific work, and professional men are finding it to their advantage to take these higher courses.

"Vanderbilt University stands committed to several lines of policy from which we do not intend to recede. It stands committed to the elevation of the standard of professional training, and we shall try in the future to make

still further advances along this line. Especially does it stand committed to the thorough training, in literary as well as in theological studies, of all the young men who are to enter the pulpit of the Southern Methodist Church.

"Further, Vanderbilt University stands committed to a college department, elevated in its standard, broad in its scope, liberal in its spirit, and Christian in its character. This I regard as the most important part of the work that we have yet accomplished. There are some friends who have argued that Vanderbilt should abandon its college work entirely, and devote itself exclusively to university and post-graduate work. Let me say here that I regard this as entirely premature, and we have no thought of doing so for many a long year to come. The best contribution that we have made to the educational interests of the South is the development of a college of high grade and broad scope of instruction, under whose protecting shadow academies and training schools could spring up, and which should stimulate by a generous rivalry of the colleges to better work and a more advanced standard.

The University

"Vanderbilt is further committed to the idea of a genuine university above and beyond the college course. This is a part of our work by which we can leave our most permanent impress on Southern education. In a vast stretch of territory we stand best prepared to do this work, and the responsiblity for its continuance falls upon us. It is in such a school that we are to train the leaders of our progress, those who shall give character to the age in which they live and lift civilization to higher levels. The measure of success we have already met shows the seasonableness of our attempt to develop this kind of work in the South. But no part of educational work is so costly, none demands such immense outlays in providing instruction and means of research, none brings in less returns in fees. But, on the other hand, no part of our work is so useful or so necessary, none adds so much to our reputation as a university. We cannot give up this part of our work; rather must we enlarge our facilites and increase our efforts in this direction."

President J. H. Baker, of the University of

Colorado, in a paper read before the National Educational Association, in 1897, said:

"Germany credits us with eleven institutions that have either reached the standard of a genuine university or are rapidly approaching it. Of these eleven, five are State universities. This estimate, of course, is made in accord with the plan and standard of the German university. It appears certain that in time the name university in America will be applied only to those institutions which maintain the graduate school and raise the dignity of the professional schools. The university system will develop freely in this country only after a somewhat important reorganization of our higher education. The line must be sharply drawn between foundation education and universtiy work, the whole period of education must be somewhat shortened, and, in all but three or four of our universities, the graduate faculty must be strengthened. These changes must be wrought, and then we shall have a rapid development of the genuine university, I believe."

CHAPTER IV.

PROGRESS TOWARD THE UNIVERSITY IDEA.

All of the educators quoted in the preceeding chapter are representatives of strong, growing universities. As these institutions maintain popular collegiate departments, which, in the progress of evolution, they are not yet ready to relinquish, it is not strange that the dominant note should be the elimination of the small college from the educational system rather than its rehabilitation and separation from the university. However, there is practical unanimity in the belief that the work of the expanding university must differ greatly from that of the time-honored college in which the older universities had their origin.

Further argument for the maintenance, apart from the university, of an institution for work leading to the bachelor's degrees may be made in later chapters devoted to college questions.

Progress

After the remarkable progress of genuine university instruction has been presented in this chapter, the real tendency in higher education and the practicability of organization for strictly post-graduate and professional work will be more apparent. The figures which follow are not absolutely correct, but are approximations sufficiently accurate for reasonable deductions.

Before 1872 scarcely anything worthy the name of post-graduate non-professional courses was offered in the United States; hence the statistics given by the Commissioner of Education begin with that year. According to the report of 1887-8, out of every million persons in 1872 there were only 5 post-graduate students, 49 law students, 142 medical students, and 83 theological students; while 573 were undergraduate and technological.

In 1886-7, there were 21 post-graduates to every million persons; 54 law students, 208 medical students, and 107 theological students; while 690 were undergraduate and technological.

In 1897-8, there were 74 post-graduates to every million persons, 163 law students, 328

medical students, 117 theological students; while the undergraduate and technological were 1,193.

From 1872 to 1887 the undergraduates and technological students increased 20 per cent., the law students 10 per cent., the medical students 46 per cent., the theological students 29 per cent; while the post graduates increased 333 per cent.

From 1887 to 1898 the undergraduates and technological students increased 73 per cent., the law students 202 per cent., the medical students 58 per cent., and the theological students 9 per cent.; while the post-graduates increased 252 per cent.

In 1872 the undergraduate and technological students constituted 67 per cent. of the whole number in higher institutions, while the post-graduates constituted only ½ per cent. In 1897-8 the undergraduates and technological students constituted only 63½ per cent., while the post-graduates constituted 4 per cent. That is, while the proportion of undergraduate (or collegiate) students had actually decreased 5 per cent., the proportion of post-graduates had increased 800 per cent. Or to put it differently,

since 1872 the population of the United States has just about doubled, and the number of collegiate students to population has doubled, but the number of post-graduates has increased fifteen fold.

In 1897-8 the colleges and universities enrolled 144,477 students, of whom 43,419 were pursuing law, medical, and theological courses, and 5,514 were strictly post-graduate students not in professional departments.

The distribution of post-graduates among a few leading institutions may be seen in the following statistics: University of California 165, Leland-Stanford 106, Yale 240, Chicago 875, Johns Hopkins 215, Boston 112, Harvard 272, University of Minnesota 184, University of Nebraska 140, Princeton 123, Cornell 163, Columbia 249, New York 122, University of Pennsylvania 154, University of Wisconsin 106. Yale also has 180 undergraduate students in professional departments, and Chicago has 238, Northwestern 188, Johns Hopkins 168, Boston 201, Harvard 758, Michigan 162, Columbia 520, New York 168, and Pennsylvania 381.

In the last twenty years the number of theo-

logical students reported in American institutions has increased 94 per cent., of law students 286 per cent., of medical students 136 per cent., of dental students 866 per cent., of pharmaceutical students 213 per cent.

The figures just given show wonderful growth in the professional departments, and an enormous increase of genuine post-graduate students; but as they are aggregates of all the universities and colleges in some instances, and in others partial statistics of certain institutions, the results may not be fairly stated without an exhibit of the relation of genuine undergraduate students to university students in a few prominent institutions.

If the undergraduate student body were eliminated, the following would be the enrolment at the universities; but figures can not show, of course, the effect upon the spirit of an institution:

	WOULD LOSE.	WOULD STILL HAVE
Harvard	1,902	2,177
Chicago	1,681	1,278
Columbia	459	2,244

University of Kansas	695	392
University of Michigan	1,210	1,849
University of California	1,298	1,140
University of Wisconsin	900	1,023
University of Minnesota	898	1,647
University of Pennsylvania	400	2,273
Cornell	664	1,576
Vanderbilt	175	591
New York University	200	1,517
Tulane	254	636
Northwestern	651	1,433
Johns Hopkins	183	466
Boston	441	935
University of Virginia	270	385
University of Illinois	1,023	801

From the figures adduced it may readily be seen, that, after relinquishing all the strictly collegiate students, retaining only the graduate professional and the technological students, these institutions would still have a large body of matriculates. But it may be argued, and with some plausibility, that if the undergraduate department were dropped, the source of supply of students for graduate and professional departments would be closed; hence it is worth while

to examine the registers of the several universities to ascertain whether the personnel of the student body of the genuine university is to any considerable extent drawn from its own collegiate department. As the data desired are not always obtainable, only a partial digest can be presented.

Harvard.—Of the students in the post-graduate department 198 are from Harvard and 138 from 93 other institutions. Of the divinity students only 8 are Harvard men, while 18 are from 27 other schools (this anomaly being explained by the fact that several students represent more than one school.) Only 236 law students are from Harvard, but 321 represent 66 other institutions. Of the medical students 138 are Harvard men, 172 represent other schools, and 285 have no degrees.

Boston University.—This university has of its own men in post-graduate courses only 62, others 113; in theology 7 of its own and 117 others; in law 3 of its own and 398 others; and in medicine 5 of its own and 156 others.

University of Pennsylvania.—This university enrolls only 35 post-graduates who hold its degrees, and 80 who are graduates of other institutions.

Johns Hopkins.—This truly great leader in higher education, with no professional school except its medical department, maintaining a very high standard for its undergraduates, registers only 87 of its own men in higher courses against 404 from other institutions. It enrolls only 183 undergraduate students hailing from its own city of Baltimore, and only 31 who come from homes far distant from the seat of the university.

Columbia University.—In 1898, Columbia with a total enrolment of 2,157 had only 341 genuine collegiate students, of whom 267 were from New York City and its immediate vicinity. Of 805 students who held degrees only 136 enrolled from Columbia.

Cornell University.—During eleven years 862 graduates of 152 institutions were admitted to post-graduate courses, yet only 364 were from Cornell. In 1897-8 more than 80 per cent. of the post-graduates came from outside the State in which the university is located.

Vanderbilt University.—Of the theological students only 5 are Vanderbilt men, while 76 represent other schools. Of the 39 post-graduates only 12 are from Vanderbilt. The Medical, Law, Dental, Pharmaceutical, and Engineering Departments show no Vanderbilt graduates. Altogether there are only 175 undergraduate academic students, and 117 of these represent the state of Tennessee.

University of Chicago.—Of 335 theological students only 12 were from Chicago's undergraduate departments. Of the 943 students in the graduate department only 95 had taken their first degree at Chicago. Of 805 regular undergraduates only 252 reside outside of Illinois.

It is true that there are many professional and technological students who are not doing genuine university work, but this is offset in large measure by the fact that in many universities the seniors, and oft-times even the juniors, are doing work that would be included in the university courses if university and college were separately organized. Then, too, the partisan of the university would point with satisfaction to the great growth in the number of undergraduates

at the universities during the last quarter century, and from this argue for the perpetuation of the present status, overlooking the fact that this very increase thrusts upon the university certain problems of administration which demand careful consideration and speedy settlement.

That the university which feels obliged to provide collegiate instruction for a local constituency will cling to its undergraduate department is readily admitted; but as the university idea advances, the collegiate department will doubtless become a mere adjunct; and presently will stand toward the university as the local training-school does to the college which has affiliated academies. But it may be predicted that a few strong institutions realizing the responsibility of leadership will so reorganize that they may sustain the most cordial and helpful relations to the real colleges.

CHAPTER V.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE UNIVERSITY ILLUSTRATED.

The possibilities and probabilities of the twentieth century university may be more accurately foreshadowed, if the development of the nineteenth century university is kept clearly in mind.

Although, at the opening of the nineteenth century, Harvard, William and Mary, Yale, and Princeton were no longer young, they were colleges pure and simple, except so far as they had theological, law, and medical departments. Even fifty years later their character was only slightly modified when a few new subjects were introduced and their resources were measurably increased.

As all of these institutions were doing practically the same kind of work, an exhibit of the condition at Harvard will suffice.

Some Illustrations

The catalogue of Harvard University for the academic year 1837-8 is a very ordinary pamphlet of 38 pages. Its overseers included, among other distinguished men, John Quincy Adams, Daniel Webster, Edward Everett, and William E. Channing. Its president was the Hon. Josiah Quincy, LL.D., and among its professors were Joseph Story, Simon Greenleaf, Henry W. Longfellow, and Benjamin Peirce.

The whole number of officers and teachers was 35, of whom only 18 were full professors.

The total number of students was 392, of whom 22 were theological, 63 law, 87 medical, one resident graduate, and 212 undergraduates.

The admission requirements were as follows:

> "For admission to the Freshman Class the candidates are examined in the following books—viz.,
>
> By the Latin Department,
>
> in the whole of Virgil, and of Caesar; in Cicero's Select Orations, and Adam's Latin Grammar, Gould's edition, including Prosody; and in the writing of Latin.

By the Greek Department,

in Jacob's Greek Reader, the four Gospels of the Greek Testament, the Gloucester Greek Grammar, Cambridge edition, including Prosody, (Buttmann's and Fisk's Greek Grammars are also received,); and in writing Greek.

By the Mathematical Department,

in Lacroix's Arithmetic, Cambridge edition; Euler's Algebra, printed also at Cambridge; and in "Elements of Geography, Ancient and Modern, by J. E. Worcester."

It is very desirable and important that the candidates should be well and correctly prepared, particularly in grammatical and elementary knowledge. If they have more time than is requisite for this purpose, instructors are desired and advised, for obvious reasons, not to anticipate the college studies, but rather to extend their studies to other authors.

The stated time of examination for the Freshman Class is on the Monday and Tuesday of Commencement week beginning precisely at 6 o'clock, A. M."

The course of instruction was as follows:

Some Illustrations

FRESHMEN.

First Term.

1. *Greek:*—
   Xenophon's Anabasis.
   Exercises in writing Greek.
   Greek Grammar and Antiquities.
2. *Latin:*—
   Livy, (Folsom's Selections.)
   Zumpt's Latin Grammar.—Syntax.
   Exercises in writing Latin.
   Adam's Roman Antiquities.
3. *Mathematics:*—
   Walker's Geometry.
4. *History:*—
   Tytler.

Second Term.

1. *Greek:*—
   Xenophon's Anabasis.
   Exercises in writing Greek.
   Greek Grammar and Antiquities.
2. *Latin:*—
   Livy.
   Exercises in writing Latin.
   Latin Grammar and Antiquities.

3. *Mathematics:*—
   Smith's Algebra.

4. *History:*—
   Tytler.

Third Term.

1. *Greek:*—
   Orations of Demosthenes and Aeschines, (De Corona.)
   Exercises in writing Greek.
   Greek Grammar and Antiquities.

2. *Latin:*—
   Livy—completed.
   Cicero—Brutus.
   Exercises in writing Latin.
   Latin Grammar and Antiquities.

3. *Mathematics:*—
   Peirce's Plane and Spherical Trigonometry.

4. *History:*—
   Tytler's—completed.

SOPHOMORES.

First Term.

1. *Greek:*—
   Sophocles—Œdiphus Tyrannus; Œdipus Coloneus.
   Exercises in writing Greek.
   Greek Grammar and Antiquities.

2. *Latin:*—
   Cicero—Brutus.
   Horace—Odes.
   Exercises in writing Latin.
3. *Mathematics:*—
   Farrar's Analytic Geometry.
4. *Whately's Rhetoric:*—
   English Composition and translation.
5. *Modern Languages:*—

Second Term.

1. *Greek:*—
   Sophocles—Œdipus Coloneus. Antigone.
   Exercises in writing Greek.
   Greek Grammar and Antiquities.
2. *Latin:*—
   Horace—Epistles and Satires.
   Exercises in writing Latin.
3. *Mathematics:*—
   Farrar's Differential and Integral Calculus.
4. *Whately's Rhetoric and Logic:*—
   English Composition.
5. *Modern Languages:*—

Third Term.

1. *Greek:*—
   Euripides—Alcestis.
   Exercises in writing Greek.
   Greek Grammar and Antiquities.
2. *Latin:*—
   Horace—Epistles and Satires—completed.
   Exercises in writing Latin.
3. *Mathematics:*—
   Cambridge Natural Philosophy, Vol. I.
4. *Whately's Logic:*—
   English Composition.
5. *Modern Languages:*—

JUNIORS.

First Term.

1. *Greek:*—
   Five books of the Iliad.
   Exercises in writing Greek.
2. *Latin:*—
   Cicero de Officiis.
   Exercises in writing Latin.
3. *Paley's Evidences:*—
   Butler's Analogy, first part.

4. *Paley's Moral Philosophy and Stewart's Elements:*—

   Composition of Themes and Forensics.

5. *Modern Languages:*—

Second Term.

1. *Greek:*—

   Five books of the Iliad.

   Exercises in writing Greek.

2. *Latin:*—

   Cicero de Officiis.

   Juvenal.

   Exercises in writing Latin.

3. *Mathematics:*—

   Cambridge Natural Philosophy, Vol. I., —completed.

4. *Chemistry:*—

   Lectures and Text-book, Dr. Turner's Chemistry.

5. *Modern Languages:*—

6. *Themes and Forensics:*—

Third Term.

1. *Greek:*—

   Two books of the Iliad, and review.

   Exercises in writing Greek.

2. *Latin:*—
   Juvenal.
   Exercises in writing Latin.
3. *Mathematics:*—
   Cambridge Natural Philosophy, Vols. II and III.
4. *Chemistry:*—
5. *Modern Languages:*—
6. *Themes and Forensics.*

SENIORS.

First Term.

1. *Cambridge Natural Philosophy, Vol. III:*—
   Astronomy, with Lectures.
2. *Intellectual Philosophy:*—
   Locke on the Human Understanding.
   A written analysis required of the student and a commentary of the instructor; exhibiting the opinions of other philosophers on controverted questions.
5. *Modern Languages:*—
6. *Themes and Forensics:*—
5. *Lectures on Rhetoric and Criticism:*—

Some Illustrations

Second Term.

1. *Locke:—*
   Say's Political Economy.
5. *Modern Languages:—*
3. *Lectures on Theology:—*
4. *Themes and Forensics:—*
5. *Smellie's Philosophy of Natural History, Dr. John Ware's edition.*

Third Term.

1. *Political Economy—finished.*
2. *Story of the Constitution of the United States commenced and finished.*
3. *Lectures on Mineralogy.*
4. *Lectures on Anatomy.*
5. *Themes and Forensics:—*

Lectures are delivered in the course of the year, which members of the Law, Divinity, and Medical Schools, and all resident Graduates have a right to attend, and which specified classes of Undergraduates are required to attend:

On the New Testament, by the Rev. Dr. Ware.

On Anatomy, by Professor Warren.

On the French, Spanish, Italian, and German Languages, and Literature, by Professor Longfellow.

On Rhetoric, by Professor Channing.

On Chemistry, by Professor Webster.

On Mineralogy and Geology, by Professor Webster.

On the Application of the Sciences to the Useful Arts, by Professor Treadwell.

On the Means of preserving Health, by Professor John Ware.

The Hebrew Language is taught to those who desire to learn it.

Declamations—Seniors every week.

Declamations—Juniors every week.

Declamations—Sophomores twice a week.

Declamations—Freshmen twice a week.

The Sophomores present Themes once a fortnight,—half the class each week.

The Juniors and Seniors present Themes once a fortnight.

The Juniors and Seniors likewise read Forensics once in four weeks,—half the class each fortnight.

At convenient times, the several studies are reviewed, and the students examined."

Candidates for admission to the Divinity School were examined in Hebrew Grammar and the first ten chapters of Deuteronomy; and, if not Bachelor of Arts, "in Latin and Greek Grammar, Virgil, Cicero's Select Orations, Sallust, Jacob's Greek Reader, the first four books of Xenophon's Anabasis, the first book of Herodotus, Butler's Analogy, Locke's Essay, or some treatise on Intellectual Philosophy, Paley's Moral Philosophy, or some other standard work on Ethics, and some approved compendium of Logic, Rhetoric, Geography, Arithmetic, Geometry, and Algebra."

Three years, including the vacations, which amounted to ten weeks in each year, completed the term of residence.

Instruction was given "in Natural Religion, Evidences of Revealed Religion, Church History, Systematic Theology, Extempore Speaking, the Composition and Delivery of Sermons, the Duties of the Pastoral office, Hebrew and other Oriental Languages, and the Criticism of the Old and New Testaments."

For admission to the Law School no previous examination was necessary; but every student

not known to the faculty was expected to produce satisfactory testimonials of good character, and some statement of his previous studies. The course was so arranged that it could be completed in two years, and at least eighteen months' residence was necessary to graduation.

No admission requirements for the Medical School are mentioned, but the examination for the degree of Doctor of Medicine seems to have been severe.

The Library contained 43,700 volumes. There is no description of buildings; and apparatus, scholarships, and endowment are not mentioned.

The necessary expenses of a student for the school year were estimated at $199.50.

The Harvard University catalogue for 1899-1900 is a stout, well-bound book of 716 pages. The summary shows 94 professors, 5 associate professors, 42 assistant professors, 19 lecturers, 147 instructors, 8 teaching fellows, 133 demonstrators and assistants, 5 preachers, 18 curators and library officers, and 33 proctors and other officers; total 504. The student register shows the following: In the College 1,902, of whom 310 are seniors, 392 juniors, 508 sophomores,

498 freshmen, and 194 special students; in the Graduate School 326; in the Divinity School 27; in the Law School 613; in the Medical School 558; in the Dental School 131; in the School of Veterinary Medicine 24; in the School of Agriculture and Horticulture 27; in the Summer School 856; total enrolment, deducting names counted twice, 4,947. Contrast this with the 392 students of 1837-8.

The entrance requirements have been modified from time to time, and in 1900 a system involving many new departures goes into effect. The terms are so full and explicit that there is space for only an epitome here.

Candidates may pass preliminary examinations in some studies in one year, and final examinations in the remaining studies in some subsequent year.

TERMS OF ADMISSION TO HARVARD COLLEGE (NEW METHOD).

"The studies which may be presented in satisfaction of the requirements for admission to the Freshman Class in Harvard College are named together in the following lists. The

figure attached to each study indicates the relative weight which will be given to that study in determining the question of the candidate's fitness for admission:

Elementary.	*Advanced.*
English (4)	
Greek (4)	Greek (2)
Latin (4)	Latin (2)
German (2)	German (2)
French (2)	French (2)
	One of the following four:
Ancient History (2)	Ancient History (2)
or	English and American
English and American	History (2)
History (2)	History of Europe (2)
	History of a period (2)
Algebra (2)	Algebra (1)
Geometry (3)	
or	
Plane Geometry (2)	Logarithms and Trig-
Physics (2)	onometry (1)
Chemistry (2)	Astronomy (1)
Physiography (1)	Physics (2)
Anatomy, etc. (1)	Meteorology (1)

A candidate for admission must offer from this list studies amounting to twenty-six points, of which points at least four must be in advanced studies. The studies offered must include:

English 4
One ancient language (Elem. Latin or Elem. Greek).....4
One modern foreign language (Elem. German or Elem. French) 2
Elementary History 2
Algebra 2
Geometry or Plane Geometry .....3 or 2
Studies amounting to two points from the following sciences (Elem. Physics, Chemistry, Physiography, Anatomy., Astronomy) 2

19 or 18

No candidate may offer an Advanced study who does not at the same time or earlier offer the corresponding Elementary study; but Physics is considered Elementary with respect to Meteorology, and Geometry or Plane Geometry, with respect to Astronomy."

In English the candidate is required to write a paragraph or two on each of several topics chosen by him from ten or fifteen set before him. These topics are drawn from a list of English classics all of which must have been read. Then certain books are named for careful study, and on them the examination is upon subject matter, literary form, and logical structure, and is a test of ability to express knowledge with clearness and accuracy.

In Greek the elementary examination is adapted to those who have studied it systematically five times a week through two years, and invloves sight translation of simple Attic prose and about thirty pages of Xenophon. The advanced examination presupposses preparation through three years and involves sight translations of Attic prose and Homer with questions on constructions and prosody, and translation into Attic prose of a short passage of English narrative.

In preparation for the elementary examination candidates should read 130 to 170 pages of Attic prose, and for the advanced examination 30 to 50 pages more of Attic prose and

3,000 to 5,000 verses of Homer, and for the examination in Composition should constantly practice writing Greek—both detached sentences and connected narrative.

In Latin the elementary and advanced examinations presuppose three and four years respectively of preparation, and are similar in character to the Greek, being based on Nepos (Lives)) and Caesar (Gallic War), 90 to 120 pages; Cicero, 90 to 120 pages; Virgil and Ovid, 6,000 to 10,000 verses, including the first six books of the Aeneid.

In French and German the elementary and advanced examinations are adapted to students who have studied one and two years respectively and in character are like the Greek and Latin examinations.

In History the elementary examination presupposes study three times a week for one year and includes either early Greek and Roman, or English and American History, with Civil Government; and the advanced examination involves an additional year's study in one of four different courses. As a further evidence of proficiency the candidate must submit a note

book of 50 written pages showing practice in notes and digests of reading outside of text-books, or brief written tests requiring the application to new questions of previously acquired knowledge, or parallels between historical character or periods, or short studies of topics limited in scope prepared outside of the class room and illustrated by some reference to contemporary material, or historical map or charts showing explorations, etc.

In Mathematics acquaintance with ordinary Arithmetic is assumed. The elementary examination presupposes three lessons a week for two school years in Elementary Algebra through Quadratics, and five lessons a week through one year in Plane and Solid Geometry; and the advanced examination requires about one year of further study on Logarithms and Trigonometry and Algebra including progressions and determinants.

In Physical Science preparation during one or two years for each of several subjects is presupposed and laboratory note-books as well as written examinations are required. Both elementary and advanced examinations are given.

Some Illustrations

The division of entrance subjects into elementary and advanced, and the arrangement by which all of the advanced subjects are taught in the college, and the provision for so many alternatives, are concessions to the demand for easier passage from any high school or academy into the college, and to the desire to permit a student practically to complete his course in less than the traditional four years.

The elective system holds full sway. The only study absolutely prescribed for a degree is freshman English, and this may be omitted if the advanced entrance examination has been taken. If both elementary German and French have not been offered for admission, one must be taken in freshman year. Students who have German or French must in addition elect three full courses, and others elect four. The freshman may elect from the following courses: Greek, Latin, English, German, French, Italian, Spanish, History, Government, Economics, Philosophy, Fine Arts, Music, Mathematics, Engineering, Physics, Chemistry, Botany, Zoology, Geology, and Mineralogy.

Every Freshman must submit his proposed course to his Faculty Adviser before entering upon it and his work must be done under the Adviser's direction.

No course is regularly required beyond the Freshman year, except English for those who have done unsatisfactory work. In Sophomore, Junior and Senior years each student is required to take four elective courses. In addition to the subjects mentioned for Freshmen, which may be carried further, courses for the higher classes are offered in Hebrew, Babylonian, Assyrian and Jewish History; Assyrian, Arabic, Ethiopic, Phoenician; The Talmud, Sanskrit, Classical Philology, Danish and Norwegian Literature; Icelandic, Gothic, Romance Philology, Comparative Literature, Celtic, Russian, Polish; Education, the Fine Arts, Architecture, Astronomy, Military and Naval Science, Mining and Metallurgy, American Archaeology and Ethnology; Anatomy, Physiology, and Hygiene. Under nearly all of these heads are many courses, sometimes more than twenty under one head. The whole number of courses is about 500.

Some Illustrations

The Departments of Harvard University are: The College, The Lawrence Scientific School, The Graduate School, The Divinity School, The Law School, The Medical School, The Dental School, The School of Veterinary Medicine, The Bussey Institution (a school of Agriculture), The Arnold Arboretum, The Library, The Museum of Comparative Zoology, The Peabody Museum of American Archaeology and Ethnology, The University Museum, The Botanic Garden, The Gray Herbarium, The Astronomical Observatory

Many fellowships and scholarships are offered.

To become a candidate for a degree in the Divinity School a student must hold the degree of A. B. or its equivalent. Usually three years are required to earn the degree of Bachelor of Divinity. Tuition is not free, as is customary in theological seminaries. Although the tuition costs the divinity student $150, the maintenance of the Divinity School costs the University more than $1,200 for each student.

The Law School admits only graduates of approved colleges and persons qualified to enter Harvard's senior class, and the course requires three years for completion.

The requirements for admission to the Medical School are almost equal to the college entrance requirements already described, and the course for the degree of M. D. requires four years for completion.

The course in the Dental School requires three years and the entrance requirements are a little easier than in the Medical school.

The University Library embraces all the department libraries and contains 548,000 bound volumes, and an equal number of pamphlets and maps. The cost of its maintenance in 1898-9 was $60,000.

The total expense of running all departments of the University for the same year was $1,412,041.54. The total receipts were $1,565,079.20, and gifts aggregating $1,383,460.77 were added to the capital, making the whole capital of the university, July 31, 1899, $11,767,458.56, and this does not include the value of unproductive buildings and grounds, which is about $5,000,000.

Columbia, Princeton, and Yale have in their own way kept pace with Harvard.

Cornell, Johns Hopkins, and Vanderbilt, all founded shortly after the war, have made rapid progress. Johns Hopkins, in particular, has had a very high standard, and has done more perhaps, than any other institution to advance genuine graduate work.

Leland Stanford Junior University and the University of Chicago, richly endowed by Senator Stanford and Mr. Rockefeller, have in less than ten years reached magnificant proportions. The University of Chicago, by offering full courses throughout the year, has attracted an unusually large number of mature students, graduates of other institutions, and by demonstrating the value of strong summer courses, has forced many other universities to offer vacation opportunities to teachers.

The State Universities of California, Kansas, Illinois, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, Pennsylvania, Wisconsin, and West Virginia, have all made rapid strides, and in their professional departments at least are entitled to be considered genuine universities.

Clark University, at Worcester, Mass., and the American University, at Washington, D. C.,

have the unique distinction of being the only institutions organized exclusively for genuine post-graduate work. As the latter is only in process of formation, and the former has confined its efforts to a limited number of subjects, it is impossible to make just comparisons with other institutions. It may be said, however, that Clark University has gathered a small band of earnest workers who are quietly making valuable contributions to pedagogical and philosophical thought. The following article by T. M. Balliet, in the Springfield Republican, will give a clearer idea of the work and influence of Clark University:

> "The decennial celebration of the founding of Clark University is an event of far more than passing importance. The term "university" does not have a very definite meaning in the popular mind, and is seldomn distinguished from that of "college." Many institutions that are mere colleges bear the name "university;" and now and then both of these names are applied to schools of a very elementary character, and we get our "business college," our "college of oratory," our "business university," our "state normal university," etc.

Some Illustrations

Properly speaking, the function of the college is to give the student that general training which is the necessary foundation for any line of special study, whilst the function of the university is to train specialists. and to fit them to carry on original research. Previous to the founding of the Johns Hopkins university in 1876, there was no institution in this country that could be justly called a university. We had a number of good colleges, and some of them like Yale and Harvard, had "post-graduate courses," but none of them did what is recognized today in this country and in Europe as real university work. All of them devoted their strength mainly, if not wholly, to the teaching of undergraduate students. They were modeled after the English type of college. With the founding of the Johns Hopkins there came into our system of higher education a university of a very different character, modeled after the German type, whose chief characteristic was to be that it should devote itself to original research, and give its main strength to the teaching of graduate students. Although it could not

wholly dispense with an undergraduate department, this department is quite subordinate. Clark University was founded on a plan closely resembling that of the Johns Hopkins, differing from it in that it entirely devotes itself to graduate work, and has no undergraduate or collegiate department. A college degree or its equivalent, is required to enter. In this respect it has taken a step in advance of the Johns Hopkins, and has the unique distinction of being the only university in this country which devotes itself wholly to graduate instruction and to original research. The number of students in such an institution must necessarily be limited, as the ordinary classroom instruction is not possible where each student is working on a special problem, and therefore requires chiefly individual help from his instructor. The significance of such an institution obviously lies not in the number of its students, but in the quality of its work and in the equipment of the men whom it graduates. Its chief aim is to carry on original research, to train experts, and to fit men for professorships in colleges and universities. Its

students are mature men, graduates of colleges or of other universities, and its work is of too scientific a character to appeal strongly to popular interest.

The influence of Johns Hopkins and of Clark University on higher education in this country has been very marked, and very far reaching. They have set the standard for university work and have stimulated, if not virtually compelled, our older institutions, like Yale, Harvard, and Princeton, to establish facilities for original research in their graduate schools and to do genuine university teaching. The influence of Johns Hopkins has been particularly strong in this respect in the departments of history, of chemistry, and (formerly) of economies; that of Clark University has been strongest in the departments of psychology and education. President Hall was the first to introduce the methods of experimental psychology into this country, and when professor in the Johns Hopkins University he established the first psychological laboratory in the United States. Today many of our larger colleges and all of our universities

worthy of the name have their psychological laboratories. For the study of psychology no university in the country is better equipped, considering men as well as apparatus, than Clark. The researches in this department are regularly published in the American Journal of Psychology, edited by President Hall, and published at the university.

For the scientific study of education, it may be said without hesitation there is no other university in this country, and probably none in any other country, which furnishes equal opportunities to the student. A large number of American colleges and universities have professorships of pedagogy, and a limited number have schools of pedagogy, which are intended to rank with law schools, divinity schools, and other departments of university education. But in none of these is education studied as a science in so broad and so scholarly a way. At Clark University educational problems are studied from the standpoint of evolution, and the sciences of psychology, biology, physiology, neurology and anthropology are all made to contribute to this solution.

It is not an extreme statement to say that Clark University, during the ten years of its existence, has made a larger number of original contributions to the solution of problems of fundamental importance with which elemetary education has to deal than all other universities in this country combined. This is not the place to discuss details, but it may be proper to point out that, through the influence of Clark University, kindergarten teaching is in process of becoming radically modified. Nature study is being placed on a new basis, efforts are being made to arrange courses of study more in accordance with the development of the spontaneous interests of children. The child study movement, which has spread over the whole country, and is contributing so much to our knowledge of the development of children, has its centre and its chief source of inspiration at Clark University. Up to ten years ago the study of education by high school teachers was very rare; they were interested in the subjects which they taught, but did not appreciate the necessity of knowing anything about the laws which govern the de-

velopment of the thoughts, feelings and character of their pupils. Clark University has raised questions of fundamental importance in reference to the development of pupils at the age of the high school and early college period, and it has made very important contributions toward their solution. The significance of the period of adolescence not only for the future intellectual life of the pupil, but also for his ethical and religious development, had never before been scientifically presented in a way to show the vast significance of its educational bearing. The teachers in our high schools are waking up to the fact that they have to deal with pedagogical questions peculiar to the period of child life with which they have to deal, and there is an interest among them in the science of education never known before."

It is not within the scope of this discussion to consider the colleges for women, but justice requires that the truly noble efforts of Barnard, Bryn Maur, Smith, Radcliffe, Wellesley, Vassar, and the Woman's College, should at least be recognized, since all are doing some genuine

university work. And the further fact that in all of the State Universities, and the Western institutions, and recently in Vanderbilt and Yale, women are enjoying post-graduate advantages, is worthy of note and cause for congratulation.

In order that the wonderful progress from the few weak colleges of the early part of the nineteenth century may be seen, the following approximately correct exhibit is made. These figures are taken from sources different from those used above and may vary slightly, because of differences in dates of compilation. As the State universities receive annual appropriations from the public revenues the amounts of productive funds seem out of proportion to the annual incomes.

CHAPTER VI.

THE PROVINCE OF THE COLLEGE.

The problem of life is right living. The true aim of life is the strengthening and perfecting of the powers and the enlargement of the possibilities of an infinitely valuable, an immortal personality.

Education, from the teacher's standpoint, is a purposive process intended to culminate in a harmoniously developed life. The life is one and indivisible. The process has its logically distinct but practically overlapping and interblended periods. The problem of the philosopher is to formulate a theory correctly correlating the various elements. Then the educator must realize the theory in a system of institutions so organized that each may have its definite place and be held responsible for a specific work.

Its Province

All education begins in the home, but does not end there. However good the home may be, it cannot as a rule, and especially in our complex civilization, give that complete development necessary for proper social activity. While under the restraining influence and guardian care of the home, the child should be gradually pushed out to meet new conditions. This is done in the local elementary school; and the period covered is six to eight years. Here the foundations for future intellectual growth are laid; and if the superstructure is to be symmetrical and noble, the teaching must be conscientiously accurate and thorough. Mistakes at this period are corrected with difficulty, and recur to mar the symmetry of life. Not only is this period the beginning of school life, but, unfortunately for the vast majority of youth, it is the ending of formal education.

Following the elementary school is the high school; but as it is local, and as the sphere of the lower school shades off so imperceptibly into the higher, to draw the line is not easy, and it may not be said that the work of the one ends here and of the other begins there. The pupils are older,

but they are still under the influence of their own homes. The studies are more liberal and the variety greater, yet nothing is complete. The high school has too often been criticised by college men because it did not fully and properly prepare students for college. The criticism is usually based on a hard, unpleasant fact, but should never be supercilious nor censorious; because the primary aim of the high school is not the preparation of students for college, but simply the increase and enlargement of local educational advantages and the elevation of the intellectual standard of the several communities. It is the right of each school district to carry its work as far as its means and numbers justify, provided honest work is done.

If it happens, as many eminent men agree, that the most profitable high school course is that which best fits for college, then the problem is greatly simplified. But if high school and college cherish different ideals; if the high school panders to sordid popular sentiment, or the college is merely a classic reminiscence, neither will sustain even a tangential relation to the other, and there will be no community of purpose.

Its Province

As this paper is not designed to discuss the province of the high school, but that of the college, the ideal of the former must be discovered incidentally as the province of the college is traversed.

Clinging to many antique customs and traditions, the college is singularly conservative, yet it is in the forefront of civilization's progress, and contains the elements of bloody revolutions as well as of the peaceful victories of righteousness. It is an historical product and a maker of marvelous history. Gathering the wisdom of the ages, it is centripetal, but is centrifugal in throwing out dynamic and fruitful ideas. That an institution so paradoxical should be misunderstood is not strange. The iconoclast condemns it for reverential retrospection, while the Pharisee fears its ferment and deprecates its departure from the doctrines of pristine orthodoxy. The radical rages, and would rupture its reminiscential relations; the conservative would curb its kindling curiosity and scorn its cosmic characteristics. The secret of these antipodal antagonisms is the unique position of the college as at once a beneficiary and at the same time a

benefactor of civilization, and its peculiar province as a maker and molder of men. The principles that underlie and enter into the formation of character have been the same in all ages, but to adapt these principles to the genius of each generation, without moral compromise, is a constantly recurring problem. Our view of life will largely determine the province of the college and the solution of this problem. If life is to be a gold-getting grind, it is doubtful whether any place will be left for an institution that has been committed to unrelenting warfare upon greed and mammon. If intellectualism alone is the end of life, the province of the college is large, yet the spirit may be mere dilettanteism and the product a cultured egoism. If mere refinement of manners and superficial aestheticism are the end; if passive, frictionless existence is the sum of life, then the sphere of the college is easily delimited. But if life is an heroic struggle for spiritual perfection, the province of the college becomes more definite, yet infinitely more difficult. Money may provide magnificent buildings, and crowd them with rare and ponderous volumes and costly apparatus; palatial apart-

ments with fastidious furnishings may contribute to sensuous delight, and an epicurean cuisine may beget dyspepsia and a legion of fashionable ailments; genius may coruscate, and erudition may illuminate the class room; eloquence may burn and insnare, yet moral pestilence may envenom every breath. Life from life is the law of life. Unless the true life is found amid these adventitious circumstances, the spiritual nature may wither and die.

The elementary and high schools have their place; the commercial, the technical, the agricultural school, and the various professional schools; the university, combining all and inviting scholarship to the largest achievements—all are needed in our many-sided civilization; and the one cannot afford to rail at the other or decry its methods and aims, for all are useful and honorable members of one great educational body. But without the genuine college, differing in method from each and idealizing and spiritualizing the purposes of all, the system would lack its unifying element.

The college of to-day does not know itself. In the tremendous effort to incorporate into its

curriculum the multiplied sciences and arts growing out of our intense intellectual activity, the college of fifty years ago, a perfectly definite type, has expanded and assumed protean forms. With its twoscore of splendid buildings, with its great library and wonderful laboratory, with its corps of specialists outnumbering the student body of the last generation, with its army of two or three thousand students, the modern institution differs as much not only in outward appearance, but in spirit and purpose, from the old college as did David in regal splendor from the ruddy shepherd lad who slew the giant of Gath. The objection to this marvelous creature, this evolutionary product, is not (to use an apt, if homely, illustration) that it has become a frog with leaping power, but that, having attained to the stature and dignity of the frog, it persists in retaining the tail and in indulging in the wriggle of the tadpole. The difficulty is that the modern university cannot be both frog and tadpole, and yet is jealous of the tadpole. The university, offering all kinds of professional training and facilities for original research and for the extension of knowledge, is not simply

the product of our complex civilization, but a necessary factory of continued progress and expansion. But the greed for numbers leads this transcendently great institution to become an obstructionist and a disturber of the peace of educational Israel, by continuing a work that its new and important function renders impracticable. Let the university cease to be an anachronism, and the college will lose its ambition to be an upstart; or, to put it more strongly, when the university ceases from selfishness, the college will come to its own.

Many university men are beginning to realize that the American university is clinging to a work worthily done before the transformation, but that can now be better done in a genuine modernized college. In the July, 1877, number of the Atlantic Monthly, Mr. Ashley, in an excellent article on "Jowett and the University Ideal," after discussing the tutorial system of Oxford, says:

> "Come now to the students for whose sake, certainly, Harvard was founded, whatever may have been the case with English colleges, and whose presence casts upon those respon-

sible for academic policy duties which they cannot escape if they would. Grant that education—and education as Jowett understood it, the training of character as well as mere instruction—is the main business of a university, what is to be said of the situation? That we do as much here for the average man as the Oxford tutorial system accomplishes, it would be idle to affirm. The introduction of the tutorial system, however, is out of the question; it needs the smaller college for its basis; it requires that the tutor should enjoy a prestige which we cannot give him; and it is still further shut out by elective studies."

The defect is here frankly acknowledged. The close personal advisory contact of the mature, manly professor, not the mere scholar, not the youthful university instructor, is needed to form the life, to correct the ideals of the boy of seventeen, as he comes from the shelter of the home and the local school. To plunge this youth, perhaps perfectly trained up to this time, but with only a glimpse of the world, and with vague, unanswered questionings and longings in his breast, into a restless, seething mass, to

render him no assistance in his selection of companions, to leave him practically without restraint, to offer him no help save formal lectures to aid him in the solution of difficulties that involve both head and heart, and which virtually determine destiny,—all this were foolish, if not heinous.

The modern university president is a great administrator, a man of affairs, but his contact with the individual student is limited to an occasional interview, if not simply to the presentation of the diploma. However great and good Presidents Eliot, Low, Gilman, Harper, and Jordan may be, they cannot do for their students as individuals the work of a Mark Hopkins, an Eliphalet Nott, a Francis Wayland, or a Wilbur Fisk. Nor do the deans of the several departments, though coming into closer relations with the student body, accomplish a great work in the life of their students as individuals, or in their spiritual development. The conditions do not admit of it. Nor does the present-day university professor, though his reputation for scholarship be world-wide, standing at long range to deliver a learned lecture, give much of his own

personality to his students. Neither can the temporary instructor, working for his own degree, seeking recognition by scholarly monograph or midnight thesis, spend time on a thing so trivial as the development of personality, of character, in his charges.

There is certainly a clearly marked province for the modern college as distinguished from the genuine university. This is to take the best products of the home and of the local schools, and by hand-to-hand and heart-to-heart processes make of the tender youth the strong, well-poised man; not a professional, not a specialist, but the material out of which is formed, in university or professional school, a specialist who is at the same time a home-builder, a lover of his country, a philanthropist, a man interested in the affairs of this world and yet "desiring a better country, looking for a city which hath foundations, whose builder and maker is God."

In order that the college may keep within its province, it should be organized along these lines:

I. Omitting professional studies and the minor subdivisions of any subject, its curriculum

should cover the whole range of literature, philosophy, and science. This is necessary in order to avoid narrowness and so as to keep the student in touch with modern life. Perhaps nothing has ever surpassed the time-honored and time-tested classical course as a genuine intellectual developer; yet it would be a confession of weakness in latter-day programs to assert that no other course can be made equal to it for the same purpose. While every course should recognize that certain subjects are essential and that there should be a variety sufficient to preclude illiberality and lack of general information, it may as well be acknowledged that the student cannot compass the whole field of learning nor absorb the complete wisdom of both ancient and modern philosophers. Granting, then, that men have different aptitudes, if the selection of studies is not made too early, and is always made under the direction of judicious teachers, the college curriculum may safely embrace courses in the arts, the sciences, letters, and philosophy, in each of which a third or fourth of the work may be elective. This option of four or five courses permits the students from different pre-

paratory schools to enter without disadvantage, and on entrance to select the degree for which they prefer to work. The privilege of choosing a certain part of each degree course enables the student, after longer deliberation, to modify his earlier choice without incurring a reputation for fickleness.

II. The library and the apparatus should be complete enough to encourage a liberal use of them without discouraging by mere multiplicity and a confusion of choice.

III. The location should be neither rural nor urban, but a happy mean, where the student may come in contact with the best elements of society without being dazzled by fashion and folly, and without being overwhelmed by the mad rush and roar of the business and professional world. It is especially important that the community be in harmony socially with the college, careful of its welfare and reputation, and free from those social allurements which fascinate the unsuspecting and unsophisticated and blight the youthful character beyond recovery.

IV. Above all, the college faculty must be a small body of men, selected with reference to

character as well as scholarship. A small faculty is necessary, so that each member may be personally and thoroughly known by the appointing power; so that each may feel his individual responsibility, and may not imagine that in so great a multitude his influence is of little worth; and so that there may be a perfect understanding among the members and complete unity and harmony of action. While the president should be a man of affairs, able to represent the institution before the world, capable of managing its business, and possessing sufficient scholarship to understand the work of each department and to command respect, still he should be above all else a manly man, a friend of youth, and an inspiration both by precept and example to noble living. While he must be manager general and perhaps must teach often enough to be accounted a real teacher, still he should be free to give ample time to confidential conferences with every individual student. He must understand and sympathize with youth, and win, even if unconsciously, the complete confidence of every youthful soul, and with loving heart and firm hand guide the student to the purest and truest

ideals, and show him how to concrete these ideals in the common affairs of daily life. Each professor, like the president, should be a genuine man. He should be a specialist in understanding his subject, but not an exclusionist in teaching it; because he must remember its relations to all other subjects, and must seek to correlate his own with other departments; to cause students to be devoted to his subject, not because they consider it to the exclusion of all others, but because of its intrinsic worth and its demonstrated relation to all departments of life. He must take a greater interest in his students than in his books and lectures, and be more willing to advise and encourage than to develop theses and correct themes.

V. The college that is true to its functions will be more solicitous of the quality than ambitious of the number of matriculates received and graduated; will not be a mere registering machine, but a spiritual laboratory for testing, and a psychical gymnasium for developing character. The number of students should be limited to two or three hundred, so that president and professors may know every student intimately, and so

that each student may feel himself the object of personal sympathy and care; and further, that students may know each other, and be able to bring the pressure of the whole body to bear upon the refractory and unworthy; so that little aristocratic cliques and convivial clubs may find no congenial soil, to the end that the true worth of the individual may be appreciated, and a manly democratic spirit may prevail.

Finally, to secure this end there must be a clear recognition by each institution of its own province. Each, by being true to its own ideal, must set a proper example. The local high school or academy must have liberty to meet the peculiar demands of its community. The only absolute requirement to be demanded of it should be thoroughness and perfect honesty in dealing with the public and with its students, who should not be led to believe that their course and training in a high school are of a collegiate character. The college must not chide the high school for entering somewhat into the college sphere, and it must have the courage to let the university criticize its unpreparedness in university admission requirements, because it con-

scientiously believes that the university requires too much for the sake merely of keeping up its dignity. Let the college do liberal but not special work, requiring thorough, accurate scholarship, but emphasizing character; not attempting to make professional men, but merely assisting its students wisely to choose their callings, and directing them to the university for professional or technical instruction. The college should be ready to receive the average boy of seventeen, and in three to five years (there is no logical or mystical significance in the traditional four) give the faithful student his baccalaureate degree. Then the university, asserting its leadership, indifferent to mere numbers, but seeking to keep to its own province and to discharge its own functions, will be thronged by a superior type of manhood, and the world will have men as well as specialists in every department of life. The common school means salvation offered to all. The high school means larger opportunity brought to every door. The college means the largest life for the individual who will enter into life. The province of the college is the making of men. The university means the concentration of all the powers of that life for the best work in a chosen field.

CHAPTER VII.

OPINIONS CONCERNING THE COLLEGE.

In a recent article in The Educational Review, President R. E. Jones, of Hobart College, expressed the following sentiments:

> "Can a university be a university when four-fifths of its students are immature? Are high-school graduates fit to enter with profit university schools of law and medicine and philosophy? An institution is not a university, whatever it may call itself, until not only its method but its material is of university grade. When colleges apply college methods to college material, and universities have university material to which to apply university methods, different results will be obtained.

Our younger professors, monsters of erudition and of scientific and scholarly interest, are forcing university assumptions on the colleges; they do not want to train and drill and teach dull boys, they do not know how; they want to lecture and to let the boys pick up what they can until the examination reveals their mental poverty and there is an excuse for dropping them. The young professor wishes to turn every country college into a university and to treat high school graduates as if they had come from a German gymnasium. He is nearly always a doctor of philosophy and throws himself into his subject with a deadly earnestness destructive of all sense of proportion. He wants to handle well his boys; to lecture to the mass of students and to train the few bright ones in research; his science absorbs his thought. A young instructor at a famous institution said of another; "Thompson will not make his mark in science, he is beginning to show a vulgar interest in teaching." The doctor of philosophy has little use for the slow and dull, and still less for the average idle boy; he is willing to

concern himself with the cream of the class, but as to all the others, he is charmed with any excuse to drop them out. In his mind the dull man has no rights, and the instructor no duty to awaken the idle one. This theory is not often plainly stated, but it is widely held. It rests upon an imaginary analogy between an American college and the German university. It imposes on the college the fundamental assumptions of the university, namely, that its students are intellectually mature, that it exists only for bright men, and that it cares little what becomes of the dull and slow and unawakened ones.

The notion that the true college is to become superfluous, that by and by the aspirant can pass from high school to university without losing anything, that the omnibus—institutions are to short-circuit the college, is founded upon a misunderstanding of the conditions under which teaching is possible. Most of the arguments for the small college are insincere. I make no special plea for it; but I do argue and plead for teaching, and for the conditions under which it is possible. Teach-

ing is individualized instruction, instruction which regards each pupil's needs and peculiarities. Such individualization is impossible where classes are overgrown, or where lectures are chiefly relied on. Is there any teaching where young professors lecture to a hundred and fifty freshmen, as is the case in a certain State University? In most subjects no man can really teach more than twenty-five students at a time. If a college is fundamentally a teaching institution, when it becomes so large that instruction is no longer individualized, it ceases to be a college and becomes an educational hybrid (hybrids are usually barren). When it is overgrown, an institution usually ceases to be a college. A college should be an institution with a definite disciplining aim; for disciplinary purposes the educational unit must be small, small enough to require of every pupil a persevering activity, and small enough to put the teacher's personality into constant and vital reaction upon each pupil's mind. When students overwhelm and swamp the teaching power, education cannot result. The colleges of Oxford are

small, miserably small according to our ideas; they average 125 members; but they can teach!

The effective educational unit is a small one; this is all that can be said for the small college and it is enough. The sub-division of our large institutions into several independent, effective teaching-units; the association in one place of a dozen small colleges, would be a forward step in our educational development; it would secure the advantages of the various types of academic organization and justify the president who enlarged upon the superiority of the small college and prayed for a freshman class of but three hundred."

At the meeting of the Southern Educational Association of 1896, President R. H. Jesse, of the University of Missouri, argued as follows:

"But deadly enemies to national education are the colleges that are such in name only, but in fact are high schools or less. It seems perfectly right when they do not and cannot honestly live up to their professions, to work and pray for their reduction in title or for their utter destruction.

The College.

Let it not seem to be digression if I discuss here what it takes to make a real college. For the institutions that bear this name unworthily, being deadly enemies to the high schools on the one hand and to the real colleges on the other, are most serious obstacles to articulation:

To be classed as a college at all an institution of learning should at least meet fully these conditions.

(1.) It should require from every candidate for a degree four years of academic study, with a minimum of fourteen hours a week.

(2) It should have a faculty of at least eight teachers, each of whom gives his entire working time to instruction in the institution, and, moreover, to instruction in one or more of the following subjects: English, Latin, Greek, French, German, history, mythology, political economy, philosophy, mathematics, physics, chemistry and biology. Instruction should be provided in all these subjects.

(3) It should teach science by the laboratory method and it should be well equipped for at least physics, chemistry and biology.

(4) The following or their full equivalent, should be the minimum requirements for admission to a real college:

(a) *Mathematics*—As much as can be learned under good instruction in three years, five periods a week. In this time students should have completed a standard high school algebra, and at least plane geometry.

(b) *Science*—One year, eight periods a week, of laboratory work in at least one science chosen from this group: biology, physics and chemistry.

(d) *Latin*—Three years work, five periods a week. In this time two authors should have been read, and an introductory book thoroughly studied. Instead of the Latin, its full equivalent in amount in modern languages, might be accepted.

(e) *English*—Three years, five periods a week. Two years at least should have been given to the reading and study of masterpieces of American and English literature, and practice in writing English should have been required regularly.

(f) *History* and *Mythology*—Two years work, five periods a week. One year should have been given to Greek and Roman history and mythology; and another year to English and American history and American government.

(g) *Greek*—Two years of Greek, five periods a week, or the full equivalent in time in additional study of the sciences or to modern languages or history.

A period means about forty minutes. If nine months work in one subject, with five periods a week, be called a point, the sum total of points to be offered and required is fourteen, of which the applicant should be expected to make at least twelve, clear of all conditions.

Any institution that can fully meet these conditions may fairly be called a college, but in my opinion, no institution can fall below them and justly claim the title. They represent the minimum.

For proper division of labor and just conception of real function it is, in my opinion, important that graduate work should be left to

the universities, and should not be attempted by even the best of colleges."

At the National Educational Association of 1897, President J. H. Baker, of the University of Colorado, spoke thus:

"In America the college has been frankly maintained in accord with Platonic ideals. A full-rounded manhood, drawing its power from each chief source of knowledge, and prepared in a general way for every practical activity has been the aim. The American college is dear to the people, and it has done much to make strong men, who have powerfully influenced the nation. There are, however, various tendencies which are likely to modify the whole organization of the American university, including that of the college.

There is a movement to shorten in some manner the whole course of education. Already many colleges and collegiate departments of universities offer electives that will count for one or two years of law, medicine, or theology. Already the university system in the form of group electives is introduced into the last two years of college. The outcome

will probably be a gradual reorganization of the high school studies and those of the first two or three years of college. The new curriculum should lay for the student a broad and firm foundation in knowledge and power for subsequent aptitudes. Upon this should be built the graduate school, the professional school, and, perhaps, the school of technology. In this plan the American college need not be lost, for the bachelor's degree could be granted for a given amount of work beyond the college in the graduate school. The claim that the student should begin university work almost anywhere along the line of education before laying a complete foundation for a specialty appears absurd. It may be added that only by partial reorganization of our educational system can the admission standard to the American professional school ever be made respectable."

At the meeting of the National Educational Association of 1898, Dr. W. B. Smith, of Tulane University, spoke as follows:

"Out of the present college-university must emerge the college and the university; dis-

tinct in aim, method, discipline, organization. The many colleges that nowadays are making broad their phylacteries and assuming the functions of universities should abandon such aspirations and content themselves with college work proper—work not the less useful, difficult, and honorable. The college classroom calls for a kind of talent different from that demanded in the university lecture-room —different, but not inferior. On the other hand, the real universities in our land should lay aside all undergraduate work below junior and senior years, and devote their wealth, their equipment, their energies solely to university work proper—to research, to technical and professional training. Even then they will have all and more than they can do, for the university supply does not yet equal the demand.

It is only a few years since the same process of spontaneous fission separated finally the college from the academy. Till then the so-called preparatory department was a regular annex to the college. The process of separation was not always painless, and often

met with earnest protest, but it has now been very generally accomplished. A similar dissociation at the upper end of the college course will free it from anomalies and bring into independent being the university in America. The college will then enter upon a career of greatly enlarged usefulness. Its function as the special organ of general culture, of intellectual discipline non-professional, but fitting for all professions, being more clearly defined than ever before, it will receive wider recognition and enter more largely than ever into the general mental life of our people. Students will be attracted to it whom now it cannot reach. At present our educational system is chaos, and, through its lack of consistent organization no less than through its over-diffusion and lack of accent, it wastes at least two years of the student's life. Everywhere in nature waste is an impressive phenomenon, but nowhere more impressive than in American education. The college of the future will parallel closely without imitating on its classical side the German gymnasium, and on the scientific side

the *Realschule;* while our university of the future will keep fairly abreast with the universities of Germany."

President A. S. Draper, of the University of Illinois, at the same meeting of the Association, said:

"The question as to what is to become of the denominational colleges is much thought of and frequently discussed. It seems to me that they must stand or fall upon their merits from the standpoint of higher education rather than from the standpoint of sectarianism. Every one wishes them well. But the trend of progress is inexorable. The standards of higher education in this country are going to advance and become more firmly fixed. The time is coming—in some parts it has now come—when no one can lower those standards or hinder their advance without being discredited. A weak college on a private foundation ought not to stand in the way of the good public high school. On the other hand, I have no thought that the high school is to become the college of the future. At least until the time when our territory is very

much more thickly settled than now, there is reason to believe that the high schools will do less advanced rather than more advanced work than they are trying to do. The colleges need have no fear of being without a field or being robbed of their opportunities. They may do a work which the sentiments of the average communities will not support the high schools in doing, and which it is either not practicable for the universities to do or which large numbers of students cannot go to the universities to secure."

Prof. Clement L. Smith, of Harvard, in an address before the American Philological Association, July, 1899, asks the following questions:

"Under the operation of these forces (enlargement, expansion, vigorous growth), what is to become of the college? Can it maintain its place? Ought it to be maintained? Why should we support, at great expense, this intermediate institution? Why transplant our educational shoots twice? What function does the college serve that could not be performed by the secondary school or by the graduate school? Why not partition the pro-

vince of the college between the two, and divert its resources into other channels?"

In answering these questions Prof. Smith, while vigorously contending for great modifications in the methods and curricula of the colleges, argues that the secondary school cannot do the work of the college: for, says he,

"The school has to do with boys and girls, and must deal with them as pupils who need constant guidance and oversight; the college has to do with students who are learning to be men."

Without stating it in so many words, and, perhaps, without intending to argue for the separate existence of the college and of the genuine university, Prof. Smith makes out a strong case in favor of the college as an institution distinct from the university proper.

Professor G. T. Ladd, of Yale University, in his Higher Education, wrote:

"The vast majority of the "colleges," so called, in this country should be content to remain colleges—that is, places which make no pretense to carry men beyond such secondary education as is preparatory to a genuine uni-

versity education. To improve the secondary education which they impart, and to make it somewhat worthy of the idea connected in the minds of our people with the word "collegiate," may well satisfy their highest ambition. On the other hand, there can be no doubt that the great majority of the institutions now called "universities" should renounce both the name and the pretence of the thing. Only those few institutions that have already acquired large resources and equipment for the highest instruction, and that can hope to draw from their own and from other colleges a sufficient constituency of pupils already trained in a thorough secondary education, should strive to develop themselves into universities. Large means for scientific research—libraries, museums, observatories, etc.—are indispensable for this development. A complement of professional schools, with their faculties, is also, if not indispensable, at least highly important. I venture to assert that not more than a half-dozen (?) universities should be developed in the entire country during the next generation, and that no new institutions

to bear the name should, on any grounds whatever, be founded."

In April, 1900, President Seth Low, of Columbia University, addressing the faculty and students of Colgate University, used the following significant language:

"The aim of the American college, as I conceive of it, is to give a liberal education; or, if you please, to develop the man. The aim of the American university, on the other hand, is to make a specialist; it may be in one of the professions, or as a historian, an author, or a man of science. Theoretically and ideally, the university ought to be founded on the college, because a man ought to be broadened before he begins to specialize; but, practically, this is not a necessity of the situation, however desirable it may be.

"It cannot be denied that the small American college (by which I mean a college unconnected with a large university) is obliged to find a place for itself to-day under conditions widely different from those which have existed heretofore. The high schools have been carried up in their work and the universities

have been carried down, so that the colleges no longer have a well-defined and unchallenged field which is theirs alone. The great majority of students leave school at the end of the grammar grades; another large number at the end of the high school; still another large number cease their studies at the end of the college, and it is, after all, only a few out of the great number of those who go to school who are privileged to continue their studies until they have taken an acknowledged position as both broadly trained men and recognized specialists. It is of the utmost importance that the students who are to go forward through college and the university should not waste their time in detours that take them aside from the mark. Such students as these should be permitted to go from the high school to the college when they are ready, and also from the college to the university at the proper time. I believe that the small college, using the term again in the same sense as before, can profitably duplicate a part of the work done in the high school. If I had the destiny of a small college in my keeping, I

should lower the entrance requirements to what they used to be a generation ago, and I should be satisfied to do now the work that was so well done then.

"America needs broadly trained men as much as it ever needed them, and the age in which that liberal training ought to be obtained is from sixteen to twenty, or from seventeen to twenty-one, just as it used to be. I think that small colleges that would be content to make the old college tender, enriched as much as it can be according to their ability, and would make it available at the former college age, would find a demand which would be persistent and growing for just this education. Such colleges cannot hope to compete with the universities in the matter of training specialists, and they will do injustice to their own students who propose to specialize if they try to. If each college will formulate for itself, with definiteness, its proper aim, the means for carrying out that aim will be clear enough. In point of view of breadth of opportunity a small college can never compete with a college which is part of a university; but in point

of view of quality of work within its own range, the small college can challenge the competition of the large ones and of colleges connected with universities without fear. A denominational university is a contradiction in terms; unless, as here at Colgate, the only direction in which it aims to specialize is in preparation for the ministry. But, for the training of men and for the development of character, the American people must change importantly before the denominational college will have lost its place."

The Presbyterian Banner of July 26, 1900, contains the following editorial indicating the place of the denominational college:

"A small faculty, declining to attempt the technical instruction which persupposes expensive laboratories, and refusing to offer post-graduate courses, for which their members have no time to give the necessary instruction, may yet, by confining their efforts to the limited course belonging to the historical college, and by coming into the close, personal relations with their students, which are impossible in the large universities, do

more for the mental training and general culture of their students than can be done for them by the larger university faculties. It is in this field that the smaller colleges are strong and the universities are weak. Since competition is inevitable and their competitors are so strong in certain respects, it would seem to be wise policy on the part of our denominational colleges to confine their energies to what they can do best, and make enlargement of their work wait on enlargement of their power, meanwhile appealing for funds on the ground of the excellent work they are actually doing.

At the National Educational Association of 1900, President W. R. Harper, of the University of Chicago, in an address on "The Prospects of the Small College," after a very candid presentation of both sides of the question, sums up his argument in the following propositions:

(1) The small college is certain of its existence in the future educational history of the United States.

(2) It must, however, pass through a serious struggle with many antagonistic ele-

ments, and must adjust itself to other similar and, sometimes, stronger agencies.

(3) In the process of this struggle and adjustment some colleges will grow stronger; some will become academies; some, junior colleges; the high schools will be elevated to a still more important position than that which they now occupy; while, all together, high schools, colleges, and universities, will develop greater similarity of standard and greater variety of type; and, at the same time, they will come into closer and more helpful association with one another. The general result will be the growth of system in the higher educational work of the United States, where now no system exists.

(4) The future of the small college will be a great future; a future greater than the past, because that future will be better equipped, better organized and better adjusted."

In the body of the address he utters these noble sentiments:

"No greater acts of heroism or self-sacrifice have been performed on battlefield, or in the face of danger, than those which are written

down in the book of the recording angel to the credit of the teachers whose very blood has gone into the foundations of some of our weak and struggling colleges. Blood thus freely and nobly given can never have been given in vain. It will cry out to heaven in behalf of the cause for which it was spent, and this cry will be heard and answered, and new friends will be raised up. The love of an alumnus for his alma mater is something sacred and very tender. Does the true son think less of his natural mother because she is, perhaps, poor and weak, or even sick and deformed? The true college man is and will be all the more devoted to his spiritual mother, if, perchance, in the varying tides of human vicissitude, she has become low; or, if in spite of long and weary years of struggle, she has failed to grow into full and perfect vigor. There are scores of colleges which live to-day, and in God's providence will continue to live, because of the devotion, even at terrible cost, of a few teachers, or a few alumni. Such devotion, money cannot purchase. It is worth more than money. It is a gift more precious than any thing material.

It is, moreover, the very essence of the life of the institution for which it is cherished. And, as the essence of that life, it is the guaranty of the life of the institution."

Further on he justly characterizes the small college as a true expression of the American spirit:

"The small colleges, scattered everywhere, are but the natural and inevitable expression of the American spirit in the realm of higher education. The universities of Cambridge and Oxford, as now constituted, are an expression of English aristocracy. The universities of Berlin and Leipsic, and the gymnasia of Germany, represent most fittingly the German imperial spirit.

"The small colleges in Ohio and Missouri, in Iowa and South Carolina, and in every state of our magnificent union, are the expression of the democratic spirit, which is the true American spirit. The small college exists to-day as a legitimate result of the working of that spirit. It is as truly American as is any other institution of our country. The American spirit which has created these colleges is, after

all, the highest and the most certain guaranty of their continuance, and in this fundamental fact and factor the others to which I have referred find their basis.

"It cultivated the habits of economy and has usually been free from the vices that accompany the liberal use of money. Its own poverty and economy have usually been an object lesson to the student. The democratic sentiment usually prevailing has bound the students in a close friendship. Here have been trained many of the recruits who have saved the interests of the people. Some of them have risen to eminence, but more of them have quietly but efficiently served the community which supported the college. The unwritten history of the small college is liable to be overlooked and forgotten in the annals of the great, but there are a thousand hillsides and as many fruitful valleys in our country where the service is gratefully recognized."

At the same meeting of the National Educational Association, in an address on "The Small College—Its Work in the Past," President W. O. Thompson, of the Ohio State University

closed with the following glowing tribute to the small college:

"They are, however, centers of life and light to hosts of people whom the greater schools do not and cannot reach. They are constantly seeking out boys, many of whom rise to eminence. These men more than justify the reason for existence. In the poorer grade of the small college there may be found much to criticise. No doubt the standards are often too low. Some harmful results do follow, but it is a mistake to be too sweeping in our condemnation. The small college is winning today more than its proper share of the honors in our great universities. These facts persist and are very stubborn things. The self-denial, the hardship, the heroism still found in many of these colleges with the lack of some modern fancies are pretty useful ingredients in the coming man. The small college has usually been the poor man's college."

CHAPTER VIII.

THE TYPICAL COLLEGE.

So marvelous has been the expansion of the university that in the public mind the genuine college has been unduly overshadowed. While the people should have a proper conception of the functions of the true college, it is natural and right that the universities should be better known. The university is cosmopolitan. The college is provincial. Although every university may serve some vicinal constituency, yet by its distinctive work and peculiar advantages each draws a certain class of students from afar. The college must come into closer contact with its students. Its capacity is limited. Barring slight denominational and sectional idiosyncrasies, every good college should be much like every other good college; hence its attractive power will regularly diminish as the distance in-

creases. It is not strange, then, that the fairly informed man who can readily name a dozen universities, most of which are beyond the boundaries of his own travel, hesitates to designate half that number of genuine colleges.

A few colleges, through some famous president or professor or alumnus, or by virtue of some characteristic bit of history, are widely known; but the average college, however true it may be to its high mission, has only a local, or at best a denominational or State reputation. It does not follow, however, that the college whose president fails to follow when President Eliot or President Harper announces some innovation, is necessarily disqualified for its sacred task, the making of men; but the college that apes Harvard or Chicago in methods and aims may easily cease to be a true college without becoming a genuine university. The college must know what Harvard and Chicago and Stanford and Michigan are attempting, in order to harmonize its work with theirs; but must not attempt to duplicate their work. While the college can not consistently increase its enrolment beyond a certain point, it must thoughtfully adjust itself

to the legitimate demands of each age and constantly add to its facilities.

The university must consider the quality of its output, and may consistently hope for larger and still larger numbers in attendance. The twentieth century may find 25,000 students at any one of the great universities. The college that matriculates 500 will brand itself a pseudo-college, for the character of its work and not the number of its students must be the paramount consideration with the genuine college. The twentieth century may occasionally see some college of urban location with unusual resources expand into a university; but that a college can command 300 students and still secure more, will imply that the population is large enough to justify the establishment of another at a suitable distance.

The policy of the genuine college is admirably set forth in "An outline of the Educational Policy of Hobart College," as given below:

> "The general aim of Hobart College is to preserve all the valuable features of the traditional American college with such improve-

ments as experience has suggested. The proper object of a college course, as distinguished from the studies pursued in the universities, and in the professional and technical schools, is the symmetrical and harmonious development of all the powers with which the student is endowed. With respect to mental training we believe that this object is best secured by a course of studies in which the languages, the humanities and mathematics are the groundwork, and in which the study of the sciences is pursued no further than is needful to train the mind to the scientific method.

We hold that the student should be required to pursue for a considerable time one or more subjects in each of the primary groups into which knowledge may be divided; and that for the acquisition of the scientific habit of mind the pursuit of one or two of the sciences during a considerable period will be found more effective than a desultory and perfunctory pursuit of a larger number. Which of the sciences shall be selected, is a question that may safely be left to the student and his advisers.

A Few Instances

The college should not attempt to do the specialized work of the university nor that of the professional school, and far less that of the technical school; but should endeavor to prepare men to enter upon such specialized work to the very best advantage which their original capacity admits of.

It is believed that young men should be ready to enter college at sixteen or seventeen. This would enable them to begin their professional studies at the age of twenty or twenty-one, with powers and faculties so well balanced and rounded as to secure the happiest results. The same age for graduation and the same general training are equally suitable in the case of young men who propose to engage in business and desire to carry with them into private and public life a disciplined intelligence and a cultivated taste. We assume that the college undergraduate at this age is very seldom competent to mark out for himself a profitable course of study, but is benefited, as a rule, by the many-sided training above defined. Our prescribed courses are framed upon this theory, permitting entire freedom

of selection only in the senior year, and even then only between certain groups of subjects.

In order that the status of the college may be better understood a few typical institutions will be described.

AMHERST COLLEGE.

If a man thoroughly conversant with educational history and progress were asked to name one institution which most fully and fitly represents the college idea, he would probably with little hesitation designate Amherst College, located at Amherst, Mass., within a few hours' ride of Harvard, Yale, Boston University, Brown University, and Wesleyan University, not to mention such colleges as Williams, Tufts, and Trinity.

Amherst College, although possessing ample buildings and equipment and large productive funds, has resisted the influences that have driven many a weaker college to attempt to be a university.

It had, in 1899, material equipment worth more than $1,000,000, and a productive endowment of $1,500,000. Its library numbers 72,000

volumes, is maintained by a special fund of over $3,000, and is housed in a commodious and convenient building. It has several well equipped laboratories, an observatory, an art collection, a fine natural history collection, a remarkably well appointed and carefully managed gymnasium, and a health cottage.

Its teaching force includes twenty full professors, some of them men of national reputation, six associate professors, six instructors, five fellows, and three officers who are not teachers. During the session of 1898-9 it commanded the services of twenty-six preachers, including such men as, Drs. Josiah Strong, Alexander Mackenzie, Charles C. Hall, Charles H. Parkhurst, and Lyman Abbott; and five eminent lecturers.

The student body was composed of 4 resident graduates, 74 seniors, 84 juniors, 104 sophomores, and 102 freshmen; total, 368. Of these 175 came from Massachusetts, and from the neighboring states of New York 79, Connecticut 23, Pennsylvania 15, and New Jersey 10; eighteen other states and six foreign countries were represented.

These figures show that outside of the sons

of loyal alumni widely scattered, the patronage is largely from the territory within two hundred miles of Amherst.

Although surrounded by universities bidding for undergraduate students and emphasizing their difficult entrance requirements, Amherst has had the courage to maintain high and strict, but fairer and more moderate requirements; and even to admit students by certificate. This has been done without either the loss of prestige or the lowering of the standard of real scholarship; because, after the student is admitted, he is not allowed to brouse at will through the course of study, but during the freshman and sophomore years is forced to take the larger part of a rigidly prescribed course with few electives. While Amherst suggests that the same number of years be spent in preparation as is suggested by Harvard, the amount required in each subject is slightly less. The difference, however, is largely due to the fact that Harvard has both elementary and advanced entrance examinations, and virtually allows the student who offers advanced subjects and who takes extra courses to earn his bachelor's degree in three years.

A Few Instances

Two degree courses, the A. B. and the S. B. are offered, and the A M. and Ph. D. may be secured, although no special encouragement is given to post-graduates. The degree of Ph. D. was not conferred in 1899, and the ten Master's degrees were evidently given to men who were pursuing their work in part away from Amherst. Strong courses are laid down in Philosophy, History, Political Science, Greek, Latin, Sanskrit, Rhetoric, English Language, English Literature, Public Speaking, Biblical Literature, German, French, Spanish, Italian, Mathematics, Physics, Astronomy, Chemistry, Mineralogy, Geology, Hygiene and Physical Education, Biology, and Music.

Special attention is paid to physical culture and as a consequence the health conditions are remarkably fine.

As students under fifteen are not received, high-school discipline is not maintained, and yet the conventional restrictions are much more closely administered than at the university. Student self-government has very largely been realized; fraternities have been utilized to purify rather than to taint the moral atmosphere, and

the religious life of the student body is wholesome and strong.

Necessary expenses range from $295 to $467 for the session of nine months, and worthy students are helped in divers ways to reduce expenses. Many valuable prizes are offered, and the income of $240,000 is used for a helping fund.

As a result of concentration upon one thing and consecration to a holy cause, Amherst has sent forth a large army of noble spirited and serviceable men.

HAMILTON COLLEGE.

This institution has claimed to be nothing but a college but is noted for the thoroughness of its work and the remarkable proficiency of its students in writing and speaking.

Located in the little village of Kirkland, near the center of New York, it is within less than one hundred miles of Cornell, Syracuse, and Rochester Universities, and is not far removed from Columbia, Yale, and Harvard, and is within easy reach of such colleges as Alfred, Hobart, Colgate, Union, Middlebury, and Williams.

In 1899 it had a number of very excellent buildings, including a library, laboratories, an observatory, a gymnasium, and a Y. M. C. A. Hall.

The geological and other cabinets contain several thousand valuable specimens. The large telescope in the observatory has been used in the discovery of forty-eight asteroids, and for much other original work. In the library are 39,408 volumes and 22,380 pamphlets.

There are ten endowed chairs, and forty-five permanent scholarship endowments, besides funds for prizes. The faculty includes twelve full professors, seven associate professors, three instructors, and a librarian. The enrolment of students shows: 3 post-graduates, 34 seniors, 31 juniors, 37 sophomores, and 58 freshmen; total 163. Of these only 22 come from outside of New York, and yet only 11 of the New York students are strictly local.

Sixteen is the minimum age. Entrance requirements for the Classical Course are substantially as follows:

Greek: Xenophon's Anabasis, three Books; Homer's Iliad, three Books, with Prosody;

Grammar; Jones' Composition, twenty chapters; Greek Antiquities.

Latin: Caesar's Commentaries, four Books; Virgil's Aeneid, six Books, with Prosody; six of Cicero's Orations; Virgil's Eclogues; ability to read at sight simple prose, and to turn English into Latin; Roman Antiquities; outlines of Roman History.

Mathematics: Arithmetic; Algebra, including Quadratics and Radicals; Plane and Solid Geometry.

English Studies: English Composition; outlines of History of the United States; the usual Literature.

For the Scientific Course, one year of French and one of German, or two of either may be substituted for Greek; and General History.

The two courses, classical and scientific, are strong, although the work in declamation, essay writing, and debating is fuller than is common in college courses.

All the studies of the freshman year and the first term of the sophomore, are prescribed. At the beginning of the second term of the sophomore year one-third of the work may be elected

and the amount gradually increases until the second term of the senior year, when all is elective.

Prizes are offered for scholarship, for essay writing, and debating, after a plan by which the students are stimulated throughout the whole course.

Work is done in the following departments: Rhetoric and Oratory, Mathematics, Greek, Latin, Political and Social Science, History, English Literature, German, French, Italian, Spanish, Philosophy and Pedagogy, Ethics and Apologetics, Chemistry, Biology, Physics, Astronomy, and Geology and Mineralogy.

The methods of teaching, the manner of conducting the examinations, and the discipline are well calculated to promote growth in Christian character.

Expenses range from $271 to $380 for the scholastic year.

RANDOLPH-MACON COLLEGE.

As Amherst and Hamilton are representative northern colleges so Randolph-Macon may be considered the best southern type of the college

which does not affect university manners, and is wholly content to remain only a college.

It is located at Ashland, Virginia, about sixteen miles from Richmond, and consequently is near the University of Virginia, Johns Hopkins University, and the Columbian University, as well as such colleges as Richmond, Hampden-Sidney, St. Johns, Washington and Lee, and Roanoke.

In addition to houses for professors, it has eight dormitories, a main building containing the chemical laboratory, a memorial chapel, a building for the library and literary societies, a gymnasium, and a hall containing the physical and biological laboratories and class-rooms. The library contains over 8,000 volumes and has $2,000 of endowment for the purchase of books.

The productive endowment amounts to over $125,000, Provision is made for several prizes, and the income from nearly $30,000 is used for scholarships and loans to needy students.

In 1899, there were six full professors, two adjunct professors, one lecturer, two instructors, a director of physical culture, and three officers who were not teachers. The number of students

enrolled was 123, of whom only eleven came from territory outside of that which belonged strictly to the college, and the same number were registered as residing in Ashland.

The entrance requirements are English Grammar and Elementary Rhetoric, Latin Grammar and four books of Caesar, Algebra through equations of the second degree, three Books of Plane Geometry, Greek Grammar and Reader, and History.

These requirements are perceptibly less than those of the colleges outlined above, but the calibre of the secondary schools in the south makes the concession necessary. As students in the southern colleges are usually more mature in proportion to their standing than in other sections, the character of the work done in the college course may be in some measure adapted to that maturity, so that the graduate will not be inferior in general culture and mental discipline.

Only one degree, the A. B., is offered to undergraduates. While certain subjects are prescribed, the principle of election is recognized and provision made for it. The courses of in-

struction are the following: Latin, Greek, English, including the literature, German, French, Chemistry (three years), Geology, Mineralogy, Astronomy, Physics, Biology, Mathematics, Moral Philosophy, English Bible, and Physical Culture.

Provision is made for the A. M. degree by offering certain advanced courses.

As Randolph-Macon has its own system of academies, it prepares many of its own students without the inconvenient appendage of a preparatory department.

Many other good colleges might be described, but these three have been selected, because they are fair instances of the typical college and have neither preparatory nor professional departments.

Two tables are given at the end of this volume showing the status of certain institutions which may fairly be designated colleges as distinguished from the university. These are so selected as to represent different sections and denominations, and they show the progress which has been made in eleven years. Several have preparatory departments organized as

academies. The statistics are from the Report of the United States Commissioner of Education, and are not so recent as those used in describing the three colleges above.

In nearly every instance there is a considerable increase in endowment and other resources, and in the teaching staff; but the enrolment of students is not yet large.

Only Amherst and Oberlin have passed the three hundred mark, and Hobart, though having good equipment, has less than one hundred.

These figures sustain the contention that, although the college should grow in respect to its fiscal resources, it must be a *small* college if it would be *genuine* college.

CHAPTER IX.

RELATION OF THE PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOL TO THE COLLEGE.

It is assumed that this topic includes the reciprocal relations of high school and college. It is further assumed that the relations between all properly organized schools should be cordial and mutually helpful. Consequently the inquiry is not as to what the relation is, but how it may be sustained with the greatest harmony, not merely to preclude the clashing of interests, but to enable each institution to support and strengthen all the others. To this end it is necessary that both high school and college should understand each its own sphere and the purpose of its organization.

The high school is the highest department of a local public educational system. It is designed to receive the youth of twelve or four-

teen, already thoroughly grounded in the elementary branches, and to give him a more liberal education. Its course should require not less than three nor more than four years for completion. The range of studies should be wide and the instruction thorough, but not comprehensive, as the time limit will not admit of the completion of any subject.

The high school should meet the demands of two classes: First, those who will go no higher, but will presently leave the school for the activities of real life; second, those who purpose taking a collegiate or university course. It is popularly supposed that these two classes cannot be trained together, and as there are ten pupils of the first class to one of the second, our high schools have usually been organized to meet the demands of a public interested largely in the first class. So long as the college recognized proficiency in Latin, Greek and mathematics as the only qualifications for entrance, it was not strange that students who must be specially drilled in these could not find work in classes with other pupils who desired a more generous course. Now, however, the best col-

leges are accepting work in science, English, modern languages, and history, in fact, are requiring more or less of these; hence, students preparing for college also need a greater variety of studies. Still, as long as our youth think that they can prepare for business and professional life by taking certain so called practical studies, and as long as they expect to enter real life and immediately earn wages without apprenticeship, so long will the high school be compelled to attempt the impossible in education.

Educators must emphasize more and more the fact that high school and college—in short, all schools except the technical and professional —are merely for the development of men, not for the preparation of specialists, and that a two or three years' apprenticeship is essential before regular wages or salaries may be expected. When high schools address themselves wholly to the task of mental and moral development, then the two classes of students may do the same work in the same way, and the high schools will become finishing schools for the masses and preparatory schools for the prospective collegians. Then will high school education be res-

cued from mediocrity and the high school will assume new dignity and importance.

The narrowing of its sphere and the perversion of its object are errors in one direction, while an attempt to substitute the high school for the college is another error only a little less dangerous. Strong local pride and false ideas regarding the scope of collegiate education have made of many a prospectively successful high school an abortive college monstrosity. In the vain effort to secure collegiate education cheaply and at home, high school students have been hastily pushed through an extensive, but superficial course, and in two or three years are thrust out into the world with a bachelor's or even a master's degree and are supposed to be liberally educated. Students so meagerly educated are self-deceived and they deceive the public, but both deceptions are speedily discovered, to the mortification of the youth and the disgust of the people. Language too vigorous cannot be used to anathematize the effrontery and fraud of the high school principal who lends himself to such an educational sham merely to gratify his own ambition and the foolish pride of a few

misguided patrons ambitious to claim every advantage for their own community. Blind leaders of the blind, all will together fall into the ditch, covered with their own confusion and with public contempt.

The sphere of the college is clearly defined. It is for students sixteen or seventeen years of age, who, having completed a thorough high school course, desire to explore a wider field and to probe deeper into many subjects. Its aim is to take the half-developed youth, unconscious of his own powers and aptitudes, and reveal to him these powers and strengthen them, and enable him to distinguish between aptitudes and to choose the best. In short the college is to make the man, but only to discover, not make, the specialist. As the college is to project upon the world a finished product, a symmetrical, fully developed man, great care should be exercised in the process of formation. Superficialty, immaturity of thought, over-weening self-confidence, must be avoided as deadly plagues, fatal to intellectual and soul life.

That institution, which, calling itself a college and thus standing forth as an angel of light,

takes guileless, unsophisticated youth and fixes upon it the stigma of perpetual intellectual leanness and immaturity, deserves the unqualified condemnation of all who know the difference between light and darkness. What greater offence can be committed against the intellect than to deceive it and bind it in chains of arrogant ignorance? High school men doing genuine work have a right to look with righteous disdain upon the pretentious claims of shoddy colleges.

The great difficulty, the stone of stumbling for colleges in many states has been the preparatory work. In the absence of a sufficient number of good high schools and academies, the colleges have been compelled to prepare their own students. The large number of preparatory students in each college, and their anxiety to secure diplomas and launch forth upon the world, have caused many colleges to lose sight of the line of demarcation; and because students in the preparatory department had thus been connected with the institution during three or four years, they imagined that a full course had been completed; and too frequently the college

has set the seal of approval upon this popular fallacy by conferring degrees which could not have been honestly earned in less than twice the time. Colleges must make a real distinction between preparatory and collegiate classes and claim the right to keep their students for three or four years after preparatory studies are completed.

Until high schools are organized throughout a state, colleges established for a state constituency must maintain their preparatory departments, but if these are properly conducted and the colleges are really in a grade above them, there is no cause for jealousy or complaint on the part of the high schools.

High schools are local; colleges, if genuine, cannot be purely local. The genuine high school will endeavor to do thorough work for all students up to their sixteenth or seventeenth year, but will not attempt to hold them longer. It will point them to collegiate education as a thing to be desired and will aid each student to find the college to which he properly belongs. The high school will welcome representatives of all true colleges and will utilize them to stim-

ulate students to higher efforts and encourage them in a nobler ambition. The college, though reaching out into a large territory for college students and receiving preparatory students from districts where good academies do not exist, will respect the legitimate high schools in their respective fields and will strive to strengthen them and will sedulously avoid any suspicion of an attempt to draw preparatory students from them. The true college must draw its students from the high school graduates. The true high school should direct all of its graduates to the colleges. In a true system the college is helpless without the high schools, and the high school is incomplete without the college. Logically, they are as root and trunk, although historically in many cases the trunk was first. While the high school may frown upon the spurious colleges, it should be on friendly terms with all real colleges, because its students, being of all religious faiths, should be distributed among all the higher institutions. While the college may justly discountenance those high schools which evince an unduly pretentious spirit, yet because it draws its patron-

age from many sources, it should cultivate cordial relations with all high schools, since it may reasonably expect to receive students from all.

College managers should be thoroughly acquainted with all genuine high schools, within their contributing territory, should visit them and endeavor to increase the local confidence, and should arrange to receive their graduates on certificate whenever practicable.

High school men should know the standing of all colleges in their state, should visit them whenever possible, should regulate their own courses of study so that students completing them may be admitted to college without examination, and above all should impress their students with the idea that a college education is both desirable and attainable. The high school principal who never sends a student to college is of doubtful standing. His ideas are of an inferior standard, and he contributes toward the fastening upon his community of misguided notions as to the true standard. He reaches ten students where the college man reaches one, and he comes in contact with youth at a very susceptible age. If he advo-

cates higher education and labors in behalf of the various colleges, he may greatly elevate his students and incidentally enlighten public opinion. If the college must in each community fight for its own against the leading educator of that community the outlook for liberal education is gloomy. On the other hand, if each high school must fight for its place against college preparatory departments that are backed by the strongest educators of the several denominations, enlightened local education becomes seriously hampered.

When institutions, which by nature are interdependent, wage unrelenting war against one another, incalculable injury is done the weaker, though perhaps deserving, institution, and confusion reigns.

Let enlightened educators unite to create sentiment which shall lead to a differentiation of high school and college spheres and bring into sympathy these arms of educational power. Let their motto be, "The high school for the college, the college for the high school, and both for the youth of our country." In seeking after a perfect system let all remember that the

system is to be but a means to an end—that end the perfection of youth toward noble manhood and womanhood.

This chapter may be fitly closed with an extract from an article by Professor J. H. Reynolds, of Hendrix College, in which he forcibly presents the necessity and the purpose of the public high school.

"The high school is a democratic institution. The public high school is an institution sustained by all the people for all the people. The argument that secondary schools are for the aristocracy of wealth has no basis in fact. An examination of the financial standing of those whose children are in our secondary schools shows that the roll is not made up exclusively of the wearers of purple and the holders of large bank accounts, but largely of the hardy, thrifty sons of toil and of that indomitable middle class so prolific always of rugged honesty, physical strength and intellectual capabilities—the basal elements in the progress of civilization. Instead, therefore, of the high school being sustained by the poor for the wealthy, it is maintained by the whole

community for the whole community. It is an effort to give the sons of toil an equal chance with those of his more fortunate neighbor who is financially able to keep his children at higher institutions of learning. It brings higher educational privileges to the door of the poor. It is a co-operative effort of society to accomplish a social end, requiring concerted rather than individual activity. The academy of half a century ago reached the few only; it remains for the high school supplemented at present by the academy to popularize secondary education.

The secondary school is a public necessity. Society needs the service of those of her sons who are most potent in possibilities trained to their highest capacity. The State cannot afford, therefore, *not* to polish the rough diamonds scattered so whimsically among all classes. Nature is capricious in the bestowal of her favors and the diamond may be found covered with poverty's dross as well as wrapped in wealth's purple. But in order that these diamonds may be found, the State will have to search every mine and apply every dis-

tinguishing test. She must place before her sons and daughters the greatest possible variety of stimuli in order to call forth the variety of talent which is needed for our complex civilization. But as has already been seen they may not be reached unless higher education be carried to them. But while society needs the services of her most richly endowed children, she also needs the skilled labor of her less fortunate—the great masses. The education in the public schools may have met the requirements of the past, but with material progress, our people aspire to higher education. This is necessary in order to meet the more complex problems incident to a more complex age. The widening of man's desires keeps step with the progress of civilization; and if the means of gratifying the moral and intellectual wants of the masses do not keep pace with the means of gratifying the material demands, we may well entertain forebodings for the future. Material, educational, and moral opportunities must be carried to the rural communities if we would acquire stability while we progress. The momentous social duties imposed upon

the citizens of our Republic require training of a higher grade. The presence of anti-social tendencies necessitates the fostering of the public high school."

CHAPTER X.

THE ACADEMY OR FITTING SCHOOL.

While the higher schools should be to the lower as inspiring and helpful leaders, still the extent and the thoroughness of the work of the college and of the university is conditioned by the preparatory schools. If the secondary schools fail adequately to fit students for the colleges or for the university professional departments which do not require previous collegiate training, these higher institutions must lack material, or else lower their entrance requirements and engage in preparatory work; or they may attempt important and difficult work with raw students. As every true school, of whatever grade, seeks to fill its own sphere, each is concerned also that others should satisfy all the conditions incident to their several provinces. The college is, therefore, vitally interested in the

right development of the schools through which its prospective students must pass. If the college is to be a genuine college there must be strong well-organized secondary schools.

Even in an ideal system of public education, there would be exceptional students whose needs could not be adequately met in the local school; hence with a system confessedly imperfect, the necessity for the denominational or private academy is beyond all controversy.

It is interesting to note that in the New England states, where the public high schools have reached their highest development, the private academy is most flourishing.

Like the college, the academy confronts grave and perplexing problems. The point at which the academy shall begin its work depends on the condition of the public schools within a radius of fifty to one hundred miles. If they are principally rural, the students are usually older than the urban students, but the subjects, with the possible exception of mathematics, are not so well taught, consequently the course of study must begin with primary branches. Were the preparations determined by the requirements of

a given type of college, fewer courses would be necessary than when vastly different entrance requirements must be taken into consideration.

With the average public school contributing much exceedingly crude material, and the colleges and technical and professional schools constantly demanding a preparation more thorough while themselves offering a wider range of subjects, the academy has come to occupy a difficult and delicate position. By its attractiveness it must win the boy of twelve who would gladly escape further schooling; and must so cultivate in him the love of learning that later he will eagerly knock at the college door. The object of the academy should be primarily to fit candidates for college, and yet it should so arrange its curriculum that those students who, unhappily, are forced by circumstances to turn aside, may not regret the years spent in the secondary school.

The academy may be small, but it must lay large foundations for character. It may be large, but its magnitude must not stand in the way of character training. It may be poor, but it must turn even its poverty into the riches of

character. It may be rich, but its resources should not be diverted to uses that do not operate definitely toward the upbuilding of character. It may be temporal, but its product must be eternal character. It may survive through many generations, but its spirit must outlive its walls in enduring character. Character, not a renown among college faculties for successful coaching, must be its chief care. Character, not coin, must be its currency. Cold, calculating culture alone will not convert the boisterous, roystering boy into harmonized head and heart. The carefully arranged curriculum must have manhood as its objective point. To devise and to administer an adequate routine of discipline requires a hard head, a heroic heart, and a helping hand.

But is not character-building the distinctive work of the college? Yes, in so far as the college is differentiated from the university; but in this particular the college and the academy have the one aim. The college can not receive a chaotic mass of youthful humanity and mold it at will. The academy in its own way must form character and must send up to the college the

full-fledged fellow ripe for final fashioning. The academy if deprived of the immediate help of the home must find a field for the full play of youthful energy and activity. It must remember that the boy of fourteen requires restraint and yet far more than restraint needs virile and vigilant leadership.

Without leaving the student wholly to his own devices, the college nevertheless gradually does away with restrictions until the candidate for manhood has fully earned his freedom. The academy can not always, for obvious reasons not derogatory of the academy, send perfectly prepared students to the college; but by its carelessness and incompetency may mar much material. With such an important work before it the academy should be a fundamental factor in any adequate educational system.

Professor Clement L. Smith, of Harvard University, in an address before the American Philological Association, in July, 1899, asks the following questions:

> "Under the operation of these forces (enlargement, expansion, vigorous growth), what is to become of the college? Can it maintain

its place? Ought it to be maintained? Why should we, at great expense, support this institution? Why transplant our educational shoots twice? What function does the college serve that could not be performed by the secondary school or by the graduate school? Why not partition the province of the college between the two, and divert the resources into other channels."

In answering these questions, Professor Smith, while vigorously contending for manifold modifications in curriculum and the methods of the college, argues that the secondary school can not do the work of the college, because, says he,

> "The school has to do with boys and girls, and must deal with them as pupils who need constant guidance and oversight; the college has to do with students who are learning to be men."

Without stating it in so many words, and, perhaps, without fully intending to argue for the separate existence of the college and the genuine university, Professor Smith makes out a strong

case in favor of the college as distinct from both the university and the academy.

How shall this important institution, the academy or fitting school be organized?

I. Whatever it may possess of material equipment the academy must have as its director or head master a manly, sympathetic, cultured Christian, a lover and leader of boys, himself once a genuine boy, not merely a petted prodigy. If possible he should be a graduate of both college and university so that he may know the field which his boys must plow. He must be a teacher both by nature and by training; but should give only a small portion of his time to class room work. He must by tactful suggestion help his teachers to teach and must know his boys to the core so that his discipline may be perfectly adapted to individual needs. Besides his pride in the brilliant pupils he may send up to college, he will have pride also in the dullard brightened, in the sluggard stimulated, in the pervert redeemed, in the purposeless directed. Without converting his school into a harbor for incompetents or a refuge for incorrigibles, he must encourage hopefulness in the

despondent and must retain faith in the seemingly faithless. As in a certain large sense the principal is the school, his assistants will usually be well trained young men of his own choosing, who will readily imbibe his spirit and heartily co-operate in executing his plans. These teachers may pass on to other schools, but the personality of the master will remain and will continually dominate the school.

II. The academy should be located in either a small village or a large city, if local patronage is desired. The large town or small city, having usually a first-class high school, very naturally has few pupils for the academy. The village, unable to support a complete high school, may support an academy; and the large city with its overflow from the public schools will furnish considerable patronage to a well conducted academy. Healthfulness and the moral environment will always be considered in determining the location.

III. Large and handsome buildings are desirable, but by no means necessary. The Webb Brothers, in their cheap frame house at Bellbuckle, Tenn., are doing just as good work as

can be done in the substantial buildings of the Randolph-Macon academies, of Wesleyan academy, or the Phillips academies. The school building, whether large or small, should be substantially built and conveniently arranged, with a comfortable, well-lighted study hall and four of five class rooms. Halls, stairways, entrances, and closets should permit the closest supervision with the minimum of surveillance. Homes for the principal and the assistants should be provided, sufficiently commodious to furnish boarding facilities for all the students who need special oversight.

IV. A library of two or three thousand volumes carefully selected should be in a convenient room and should be so administered that the students may come daily into contact with the books. It should be rich in biography and in attractive historical and scientific works. After his nature and his needs have been thoroughly studied, each student's reading should be studiously directed by the principal.

A small laboratory, equipped for elementary work in Physics, Chemistry, and Biology is requisite, that they may acquire an adequate con-

ception of modern scientific methods and be the better equipped in the college entrance requirements.

A gymnasium and an athletic field are indispensable as a means toward a proper physical development. Endowment is desirable, but not necessary, as the teaching force in the academy is smaller in proportion to the number of students than it is in the college. Consequently an academy with one hundred paying students will afford a fair income with which to meet the expenses, and pay the teachers.

V. In case the academy is a denominational school, it were wise, although not always necessary, to affiliate it closely with the college of that denomination in that State. If there are other academies (and every college needs ten or twelve) each should have as much territory as is deemed proper to contribute its patronage. As the academy representatives may greatly help the cause of education by house to house visitation, and as pupils may be expected from every neighborhood, the area reserved for an academy should seldom exceed three or four counties. If it be thought undignified for schoolmen to can-

vass, it should be urged that the academy canvasser is the discoverer of the rough diamond that lacks only the grinding and polishing of the school to reveal brilliancy and worth. The discoverer of latent human wealth is a benefactor of the race.

VI. The course of study, beginning with Arithmetic, English Grammar, and a Beginners' Latin Book, should run through four years in Mathematics, English, and Latin; three years in Greek, Science, and History, and two years in German and French. Music, Drawing, and Book-keeping should be offered. If it is desirable to fit for the sophomore year in the small college (not university) one more year in each subject may be provided. At this point, however, the academy is liable to the same danger that besets the small college which offers many electives and graduate courses,—the expense may be too great in proportion to the results.

Unless this higher work so increases the patronage that the teaching force may be correspondingly strengthened, the lower work must suffer at the expense of the higher. Just as the college should not detain its graduate students

for post-graduate work, but should send them on to the genuine university, so the academy, to be true to its function, should encourage its students to enter the college as soon as they have their preparation completed, and they have attained a certain maturity. Whether freshman work should be done in the academy or in the college must be determined largely by individual circumstances.

Scores of successful independent academies, scattered throughout the land, and meeting a growing demand, witness to the value of such institutions. But a tendency to organize secondary education under college control for the purpose of holding each school to its distinctive field and function is to be noted.

Colby University, in Maine, has four academies; Randolph-Macon College, Virginia, has two for boys and one for girls; and the Kentucky Wesleyan College has two. Central College, Missouri, has recently absorbed three languishing colleges and converted them into academies. Hendrix College, Arkansas, has established three academies; building all its houses on the same plan; and it proposes to

found ten or twelve other academies in carefully selected locations in its territory. The scheme for definite responsible correlation of academies with a college may be illustrated by a clear statement of the Hendrix College plan.

Hendrix College is the college for men, of the three Annual Conferences of the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, in Arkansas; and consequently has the whole State for its territory. It is managed by eighteen trustees, six from each Conference.

In 1889 the trustees adopted the following article of their constitution:

ARTICLE XII.

ACADEMIES.

Section 1. Arrangements may be made to carry on the preparatory work in the college, in academies in different places throughout the State, provided such academies are owned and controlled by the whole Board of College Trustees, subject to the provisions of this article.

Section 2. The six members representing an annual conference may establish academies

within their own conference, organizing for that purpose by the election of a president, secretary and treasurer, and the adoption of a constitution whose provisions must not conflict with the college constitution, and this Annual Conference Board shall be for all academies in the conference and is distinct in organization from the combined conference and local Board hereinafter provided for.

Section 3. No action of this Conference Board shall be final until ratified by the College Board.

Section 4. No academy shall be adopted unless $10,000 in money for building and a sufficiency of ground for campus be donated to the Board.

Section 5. When an academy is adopted the Annual Conference Board shall examine the territory carefully and decide upon the amount (usually four or five counties) of territory necessary to sustain it and from which it may reasonably expect to draw patronage and within which it is not probable that another academy will be needed, and then guarantee said territory to the academy, and agree

that within such territory the college will use its influence to send preparatory students to the academy and the academy will try to direct its own and other prepared students to the college.

Section 6. Any academy may be allowed to canvass other territory not already guaranteed to other academies.

Section 7. The academy will be recognized as part of the college and so advertised in the college catalogue, and the Principal of the Academy shall be considered a member of the College Faculty and shall attend at least one meeting a year if notified and required by the College President.

Section 8. The Principal shall be nominated by the College President and elected by the College Board, and shall be under the general supervision of the College President, reporting to the latter whenever required.

Section 9. The College President shall visit the academy at least once a year, and the course of study and regulations shall be subject to his approval. He shall report each academy to the College Board.

Section 10. The Annual Conference Board shall nominate and the College Board elect six men from the guaranteed territory, three of whom shall be members of the M. E. Church, South, and these, acting with the Conference Board, shall constitute a Local Board with power to elect, on nomination of the Principal, other members of the Faculty, and exercise the general powers of an executive committee.

Section 11. Except the business course, and French and German, the course of study in the academy must be preparatory, but by special agreement the work of the college Freshman Class may be carried on.

Section 12. Unless the President and Faculty of the college disapprove the work done in an academy, a certificate from the Principal shall admit its students to the college classes for which they are certified.

The St. Louis Christian Advocate, August 29, 1900, editorially discusses the advantages of the private, or denominational, academy, using much plainness of speech. Without intending

to disparage the public schools, it stresses the opportunity and duty of the private academy.

"One of the most promising facts in this educational era (and we might perhaps say crisis,) is that many struggling institutions claiming the rank and dignity of the college and professing to do its work without endowment, buildings or apparatus, and we might almost say without faculty or students in some cases, have been awakened to the real situation, and abandoning their untenable position, have aligned themselves as academies or training schools with the educational work of the church. In this field they can succeed, not merely in maintaining themselves in honor, but they may also accomplish a work for which no other school is fitted and which is essential to Christian education in any large meaning of that term.

The great majority of those who are educated outside of the public schools never go beyond the academic course. And those who have the ambition and opportunity to complete the curricula of college or Christian university, must of necessity pass through the

academic course, and for these grave reasons the academy is far more important than the college if either is to be preferred. The college is for the few; the academy for the many. The one can only exist in fortunate localities; the other offers Christian training in many places where the first is an impossibility.

With the State school of any grade we have no controversy, and especially with its lower form of expression. It is a boon and blessing to the children of those who are too poor or too penurious to patronize any other and who would grow up in ignorance but for this. The free school is a necessity, and whoever opposes it is foolish if not wicked, but whoever says it is superior to the average private school, proclaims himself ignorant or selfishly interested. He is a teacher in the public school or a patron of the school who would save both pride and cash by condemning the private school, or what is the same, by magnifying the public school in comparing the two; otherwise, he is ignorant and speaks what he does not know. Generally the academy has teachers more or less mature in mind and

with a college training as well as good social position. They have a practical experience often extending over years, and they most generally are in the work for life. Then there are the higher associations of the private school and its "natural selection" of students from the more wealthy and cultivated. The level is a higher one. In all these respects the public school is at a grave disadvantage. The greater number in the public school necessitates large classes, and these must accommodate themselves to the intellectual movements of the most sluggish and stupid, and the certain result is that naturally bright minds will be hindered and injured, and the work that ought to be done in three or four years is often extended to six or eight.

We might continue this phase of the discussion and speak yet more plainly, and yet claim to be what we really are—an unfaltering friend and supporter of the public school.

In his address on "The Prospects of the Small College," President Harper argues thus:

"In the struggle for existence, however, some of the colleges * * * will be compelled

to limit their activity to the sphere of work known commonly as the academic, or preparatory field. * * * Surely an institution with a library of less than a thousand volumes, with scientific apparatus and equipment which has cost less than one thousand dollars, with a single building which has cost less than forty thousand dollars, and with an income of less than six to eight thousand, is not in position to do college work; and yet it is probably true that more than one hundred so-called colleges belong to this category. Forty years ago such a college, if its small faculty had contained a few strong men, might have justified itself; but to-day the situation is changed, and institutions of this kind are recognized at a distance, if not at home, at their true worth. These, and, in addition, some that in times past have been more prosperous, will, in the course of educational development, come to occupy a more honest position before the world, and nothing could occur which would be more advantageous to the cause of education. Strong academies are needed side by side with the *high schools* of the state, just as

strong colleges and universities, founded by private means, are needed to work side by side with the *universities* of the state.

While, therefore, twenty-five per cent. of the small colleges now conducted will survive, and be all the stronger for the struggle through which they have passed, another twenty-five per cent. will yield to the inevitable, and, one by one, take a place in the system of educational work which, while in one sense lower, is in a true sense higher. It is surely a higher thing to do honest and thorough work in a lower field than to fall short of such work in a higher field."

CHAPTER XI.

CORRELATION OF CHURCH SCHOOLS.

Correlation, the adjustment of forces to the work, the harmonizing of interests which may conflict but should co-operate, the conservation and proper direction of energies, is a sound economic principle. This cherished idea of the schools, practically applied to commercial industry, has in a large measure failed to enforce itself in the organization of those very institutions which profess to teach to others its economic value. In public systems the principle is partially recognized, but by the Church it is often enthusiastically applauded and then studiously ignored.

The work of education demands philanthropic hearts and business heads. Sound economic principles must be adopted in an enterprise re-

quiring the hearty and substantial support of business men. Such men will properly refuse to be involved in that which is managed contrary to correct business rules. If it is wise to win the confidence of these men of good judgment and great wealth, then correlation is wise.

Just as the manufacturer employs the exact number of men necessary for a certain business, so should the Church, considering the work to be done, organize precisely the forces needed. Just as the manufacturer arranges his workmen according to their skill and the difficulties of the various processes, using a few highly skilled workmen at high wages for the most delicate operations, a large number of the less skillful at moderate wages for the less important work, and a host of unskilled laborers at low wages for the ordinary tasks; so should the Church separate the spheres of her agencies and assign to each sphere the exact number and kind of institutions required.

The Church is not specially charged with the duty of providing schools for her youth under fourteen years of age, as they may usually be educated under immediate parental care; hence

the Church may be expected to correlate only academics, colleges and universities.

As the genuine university needs endowment and equipment worth at least $10,000,000, if all departments are to be maintained, and must draw students from many colleges, a church, even though it may number its adherents by the million, can hardly afford to sustain more than one university. This institution should be so strong that it may command the respect of the best colleges and its position with reference to the affiliated colleges should be so clearly defined that its right to leadership may be unquestioned and its influence may be felt in all the schools below.

It should be managed by trustees representative of the whole church so that the latter may feel responsible for its proper maintenance and be able, without descending to petty details, to formulate its policy. Its chief executive should in a liberal sense be the representative and manager of the great educational movements of the Church.

The college, restricted to its peculiar work, should sustain to a limited territory practically

the same relation which the university sustains to the whole church. For obvious reasons the territory of a denominational college should be a State, unless the church is numerically weak, in which case several States might unite on one judiciously located college. Rarely will it be wise to support two genuine colleges in one State, however strong the constituency may be. Where the State university is merely an overgrown college, as for some time to come will be the case, the necessity for equalling the facilities of this formidable, even if friendly rival, suggests the concentration of church effort on a single institution of high grade. The college with less than $500,000 in endowment and equipment will not long weather the storms of the twentieth century.

While the college will draw more and more largely from the public high school, still for the sake of harmonizing the educational labors of the church, the denominational academies of each state should be in vital touch, if not in organic union with the college. A working plan for close correlation was suggested in the chapter on "The Academy."

Correlation

With each academy sure of its position, held responsible for the educational results in its legitimate territory, co-operating with every other academy to support its college, and in turn encouraged and strengthened by that college; with each college fairly endowed, free from rivalry within the Church, sure of its constituency, resting on solid high schools and academies below, and appreciating and appreciated by the university above; with a great university nobly leading in educational affairs, conserving the best of the past, sensitive to the needs of the present, and pointing to higher achievements in the future,—the church may more fully meet her responsibilities and widen her helpful influences.

In March, 1893, the Tennessee Methodist published a symposium of articles by Southern Methodist educators on "Correlation of our Methodist Schools—Is it Wise and Feasible?"

Below are given extracts from several of these articles. It is interesting to note their substantial agreement, and, also, to watch in the history of Southern Methodism the rapid crystallization of their theories into formulated policy.

Rev. W. F. Tillett, D.D., Vice Chancellor, and Dean of the Biblical Department of Vanderbilt University:

"We think it is; but what does correlation involve? We believe the time has come in the development and multiplication of our institutions of learning when the interests both of the Church and of the cause of education demand that these institutions should be organized into such a system as shall make them mutually helpful of each other. We stand in danger, unless some such system of correlation be adopted, of wasting much of our educational energy for want of a wise distribution of labor. Hereby alone can we secure the highest efficiency of our schools. A great Church, recognizing education as one of the most important departments of its work in the world, and next to preaching, its most efficient means of doing good, should have a complete educational system. There is no interest of our Church that is so large and important that has so little system, correlation and uniformity of method as that of our educational work.

The result of such correlation, if wisely ef-

fected, would be to weaken or injure none, but to strengthen all. Unity and organization bring strength and harmony, not weakness and discord. Our institutions of learning, by being regarded as several parts of one great whole, may be as safely and wisely graded, defined and correlated as are our various conferences—church, quarterly, district, annual and general. The connectionalism of our Church makes such correlation not only a possibility but a thing greatly to be desired."

W. W. Smith, Ph.D., President of Randolph-Macon College:

"We should place all schools and colleges owned by our Church under the general supervision of a General Board of Education with an active Secretary.

This Board should seek without shock but steadily and persistently to bring all into a system of (1) Local or day schools; (2) District boarding academies; (3) Conference colleges; (4) one University. Church aid should be secured and applied only toward this end. It would secure:

1. Honest work, eliminating sham and pretence. 2. Better work by division of labor. 3. Higher work, the foundation being solid."

Rev. J. H. McLean, D.D., President Southwestern University:

"For a more complete organization of our educational interests, I would look to the General Conference for legislation along the line of a graduated system of schools, culminating in a grand university for original work and professional training, and a commissioner of education to supervise the system. Placed at a disadvantage by reason of the free schools, dependent alone upon the Church for support, the greatest wisdom and prudence should characterize us in the management of our educational interests. There should be no strife or confusion. The same harmony should prevail in educational as in missionary matters. Our schools should no more antagonize each other, or be allowed to do so, than should missions be in conflict one with another; but, contrariwise, mutually helpful."

Rev. James Atkins, D.D., President of Emory and Henry College:

Correlation

"A very rigid system at first may not be possible or advisable, but enough of correlation to take from our work the destructive element of what may be called the accidental and undirected, is necessary and easily attainable. Such is the nature of the work, however, that it will have to come, whatever may be the system, as the consensus of the Church. There needs to be General Conference action, determining a policy and constituting a Board of Education for its execution.

The benefits to be derived from correlation are such as will repay the Church for all the labor involved. These benefits will accrue to all the grades of schools and will pertain to numbers, finances, the qualification of teachers, and to the quality of scholarship in the various grades. Under the conditions which correlation will produce, a great Southern Methodist University will become a possibility, and in due course of time, a fact—a fact of more gigantic importance to the future of the Church than is now even dreamed of by the many. As the case now stands, the University, the Colleges and the under schools are all

bound in the same shallows. When we have correlation we shall be able to command community money for primary and academic schools, conference money for Colleges, and connectional money for the University. It is almost certain that two very great general results will follow. First, when the Church, not through individual members or corporations within its pales, but when the Church, as such, takes the work of education in hand, an interest will be awakened such as we have not seen, and all the agencies of education will be vitalized as never before. Second, the heresy that education is a secular business and ought to be left to the common hazzards of the market will be driven from the Church. A public conscience in relation to this great duty will be created. Our greatest need just now is a conscience of this kind."

Rev. J. D. Hammond, D. D., President of Central College:

"The first essential to correlation is oneness of aim. The so-called "Church Schools" which are being carried on in the interest of the individual owner or of the community,

must either be gotten rid of or changed in their principles. As it is, each school is a law unto itself, having no reference to the conditions and needs of any other. No one is planned with a view to supplementing and helping the work of another. On the contrary there seems to be a mutual interference amongst our different orders of schools by which we are kept back from our highest educational efficiency. A community which has secured a district high school, with a competent superintendent and assistants, is prepared for first-class school work. So far all is well. But in the course of a few years it becomes evident that those who have finished the course desire to go further and to obtain diplomas and degrees; and that they will go to other communities in search of institutions of a higher grade. The local managers of the school see in this movement a temporary loss to the business of their own community, and perhaps an injury to their schools. As a consequence they, in self-defense, procure a charter and take unto themselves the right of conferring degrees. And now by offering the same degrees that are con-

ferred by higher institutions, and by appealing to local pride, they succeed in keeping their young people at home. In this, which is no uncommon process, we see an evil which works both ways. In the first place, those young people who, by means of this high school course, had been brought to feel their need of still further advancement, have been led to accept the shadow for the substance, and have been started out in life with a false claim to the confidence of their fellow men. They must carry through life titles for which they have not paid an honest return in work and acquisitions. But a worse result still is seen in the injurious effects of such a course on our higher institutions of learning. In the first place, since these high schools no longer allow their graduates to enter our colleges, the colleges are, in their turn, forced to enter into competition with them by annexing their own preparatory departments. This at once lowers the tone of the college and interferes with its true work. A large part of its force is drawn from its appropriate sphere and turned into the work of the preparatory department. For in the nature of

the case this department outnumbers the college, as a rule, about three to one. Thus the teaching force is taxed to do a work that might be better done by the high schools, and little power remains for the work of keeping the college itself abreast of the times and thoroughly efficient in all its departments of work.

Our present want of system is due, not to any intention on the part of our school men, but rather to inattention and indifference on the part of the Church. We have reached our present educational status by spontaneous development. But we have come to the point in our history at which it is necessary to get rid of the friction of mutual interference, and to take advantage of the benefits arising from mutual helpfulness. This can only come through legislation. There must be a law, clear and emphatic, regulating our educational system."

Nearly all the stronger denominations are discussing the propriety and the possibility of systematizing their educational work, but American Methodism, largely on account of its connectional form of government, is achieving the most definite results.

Church Schools

As early as 1780, when there were fewer than 9,000 Methodists in America, Francis Asbury and John Dickins agreed on a plan for an academy. On the first day of January, 1785, the Christmas Conference, as it was called, after having completed the formal organization of the Methodist Episcopal Church, resolved to build a college, authorized the raising of funds, and required all preachers to "preach expressly on education."

Although the people were poor and numbered only 15,000 at the beginning of the movement, the handsome sum of $50,000 was raised for Cokesbury College during the ten years of its existence. Thus the first educational effort of Methodism was connectional, but this phase ended with the burning of Cokesbury, and it was many years before attempts at college building were again made. The efforts culminating in the founding of McKendree College, Alleghany College, Dickinson College, Wesleyan University, Randolph-Macon College, and Emory College, were not connectional although they profoundly interested and influenced the connection. During almost the entire century after

1830, Methodism fostered higher education diligently without being committed to any system; consequently the last decade finds about two hundred Methodist institutions of all kinds, but very few sustain clearly defined relations to others, and over many the Church exercises scarcely nominal control.

In 1872, delegates from Conferences of the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, representing Tennessee, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, and Arkansas, adopted a plan looking to the organization of a superior institution, but wisely determined to delay its opening until $500,000 should be secured. This might have been long deferred had not Commodore Vanderbilt generously contributed more than the amount required. Vanderbilt University, opened for students in 1875, although not connectional and not yet a genuine university, was so vastly superior to the existing colleges and had so wide a patronizing territory that almost from the first it was considered by pre-eminence *the* university of the Southern Church. With growing prestige came the desire of this university, reciprocated by the Church, for a legal relation

which should make Vanderbilt in fact *the university* of the whole church. In 1898 this was consummated by action of the General Conference.

In 1890 steps were taken to establish at Washington, D. C., under the auspices of the Methodist Episcopal Church, (North, to distinguish it from the Church South), "a university, Christian, catholic, tolerant, and American, having for its sole aim post-graduate and professional study and original research." It is warmly endorsed by the General Conference, money and property amounting to more than $1,250,000 have been secured, and effort will not be spared till $10,000,000 are provided. It will be a genuine university and truly connectional.

In 1868 the General Conference of the Methodist Episcopal Church (North) instituted a Board of Education, which, with powers gradually enlarged, has more and more influenced the church's educational policy.

In 1892 the General Conference adopted a new chapter on education. It was made the duty of every pastor to observe Children's Day, to take a collection expressly for the Children's

Fund, and to forward this collection to the Board. The scope of the Board's work was enlarged, a University Senate was authorized to formulate a standard of requirements for graduation in the Church schools, and the Board was authorized to apply this standard and classify as colleges such institutions as should meet the requirements.

In 1893 the University Senate held its first meeting, adopted a standard, and reported its work to the Board. The Board, after sending the Senate's standard to all the Church schools, applied in 1894 the requirements, and published the classification in its report of 1895.

In 1896 the General Conference strengthened the system, giving the Board additional authority and responsibility. It by law provided that no institution of intended collegiate grade established after July, 1896, shall be eligible to connectional recognition or aid unless it shall have secured the approval of the Board of Education before its establishment.

In 1894, after much preliminary agitation, the General Conference of the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, organized a Board of Education

and made an assessment for education obligatory on every Annual Conference.

The Board made the following declaration of its policy:

> " In discharging the duty of supervising and giving direction, so far as its power extends, to the great work of education by our Church, it will be the aim of this Board (1) to promote the endowment of existing colleges which have the elements of success and the necessary conditions of usefulness; (2) to repress the tendency to multiply institutions with inadequate prospects of support, which has strewed our territory with more dead colleges than we have now in operation, and dragged to the dust with them the credit of endorsing Conferences; (3) to encourage the establishment of academies, which are especially demanded by present educational conditions, and are easily within reach of our means and should be placed in close correlation with such institutions of our Church as the Annual Conferences may direct; (4) to complete our system by correlating as rapidly as possible our Con-

ference colleges with the graduate and professional departments of Vanderbilt University."

In 1898 the General Conference greatly increased the power of the Board and provided for a Commission to prescribe minimum entrance and graduation requirements, reporting to the Board the standards thus adopted, and made it the duty of the Board to classify all the educational institutions of the Church, and to designate each as a university, college, or academy, according to the relation of the work done by it to the standards thus established by the Commission.

After adopting standards the Commission made the following recommendations:

"1. It is important that the distinction between the college and the academy and between the university and the college, be clearly defined. The college should not do the work of the academy, nor should the university do the work of the college. We recommend that the Annual Conference or Conferences of each State unite upon one college, and one only, for boys and girls. We believe it better to maintain one strong, well-equipped college

open to both sexes than two weak colleges, one for boys and one for girls. In States, however, where the policy of co-education may be adversely regarded it may be possible and best to maintain two strong institutions for single sex education.

2. We recommend that the academies of each State be so correlated with the college of that State as to form a harmonious educational system, preventing friction and waste. We recommend that our colleges be so correlated with the Vanderbilt University as to form a complete and harmonious system for the whole Church.

3. We recommend that no institution be classified as a college unless it have:

(a) The support and become the only college of at least one Annual Conference.

(b) A permanent annual income, not counting tuition fees, of at least $3,000. This income may arise from the interest on endowment, from Conference assessments, from private contributions, or otherwise, but should be so secured as to guarantee the permanent support of the institution.

4. In the opinion of this Commission, adequate instruction in the course of study outlined for baccalaureate degrees cannot be properly given with a faculty of less than seven competent teachers.

5. We recommend that an institution to be classified as a university have an endowment of not less than $1,000,000; that it be organized on a basis of professional schools and of elective studies with departments of original research."

Under the law of the General Conference no institution of learning may be adopted by an Annual Conference unless recommended by the Conference Board of Education, and if the institution be of collegiate grade, the consent of the General Board is also necessary.

Thus in the last decade of the nineteenth century both the great branches of American Methodism have, without adopting a rigid system, entered upon a policy that will soon ultimate in practical correlation.

CHAPTER XII.

UNIFORM REQUIREMENTS FOR DEGREES.

In his introduction to "A Series of Monographs on Education in the United States," Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler, of Columbia University, writes:

> "Spontaneity is the keynote of education in the United States. Its varied form, its uneven progress, its lack of symmetry, its practical effectiveness, are all due to the fact that it has sprung, unbidden and unforced, from the needs and aspirations of the people. Local preference and individual initiative have been ruling forces. What men have wished for that they have done. They have not waited for State assistance or for State control. As a result, there is, in the European sense, no American system of education."

This splendid capacity for "individual initiative," recently displayed by the private soldier in the Cuban campaign so conspicuously that it was complimented by German military officials, is characteristic of the American in all departments of life. Without exhibiting egregious egotism he is complacently conscious that he can, with reasonable opportunity, do all things; nor does the thoroughly *American* American quietly await opportunity; he provokes and challenges it to come his way. It is not strange then that this quasi omnipotence should betray itself in academic circles. The faculty of every institution, from Cobweb College to Harvard University, is a law unto itself, and feels fully competent to settle admission and graduation requirements, create degrees *ad absurdum*, and confer them *ad infinitum et nauseam*. So independent have our colleges and universities been that diversity in graduation requirements has been the rule. Starting with substantially the same courses of study, the historic colleges have become widely differentiated, and new institutions have apparently attempted to bid for notoriety by their startling heterogeneousness; hence, the

Harvard idea, the Columbia idea, the Michigan idea, the Virginia idea, the Johns Hopkins idea, the Chicago idea, the Stanford idea. The small colleges also differ greatly in their requirements. Seldom are two identical, save as some new-ground university (?) in its haste to advertise before the "deadening" is finished, copies bodily from the catalogue of its president's *alma mater*.

Although this process of the differentiation of standards and the individualizing of colleges is doubtless not yet complete, a strong counter-tendency may be discovered. As the constituency of the leading institutions has increased and become representative of every section of the country, their community of interests in the preparation of students has become obvious. When it was found that in one Ohio academy one student was looking toward his State University, another toward Harvard, another toward Oberlin, another toward Princeton, another toward Michigan, another toward Johns Hopkins, the necessity for the same or equivalent entrance requirements became evident. This necessity has borne fruit in the adoption of sub-

stantially equivalent admission standards by the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of New England, of the Middle States and Maryland, of the North Central States, and of the Southern States; the requirements adopted for the Southern States being for the present slightly lower than for other sections. So much importance is attached to this question that in 1895 a Committee of Ten was appointed by the National Educational Association, and in 1899 this committee made an able and exhaustive report. It is not proposed here to discuss entrance requirements. This reference is made merely to show the tendency toward uniformity in secondary education. However, as the intent and extent of collegiate work depends largely on the character of the requirements in secondary schools, practical agreement concerning the latter is a condition precedent to uniform requirements for degrees. When it is known that the whole course for a bachelor's degree at Harvard is elective and may be completed in three years, and that the senior at Columbia may take professional studies and receive credit for the same

work on both his academic and his professional degree, that the University of Indiana confers only the A. B. degree for academic work, while the University of Michigan confers four degrees, supposed to be of equal value; and when it is considered that reputable institutions often require less for the S. B. than for the A. B. degree, the difficulties in the way of securing uniformity seem enormous. And yet gratifying progress has already been made. Several denominational organizations, notably the University Senate of the Methodist Episcopal Church and the Education Commission of the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, recently created by the respective General Conferences have laid down minimum graduation requirements for all schools under their control, while the States of New York and Pennsylvania, by placing restrictions around degree-conferring institutions, are asserting their authority to guarantee legitimate results.

Is uniformity desirable?

If by uniformity is meant absolute identity of courses in all institutions, the answer must be an unequivocal no. If the curriculum is to be

fixed according to the ability of the well-endowed university so that the elective principle in all its fullness may prevail, the small college, though well equipped within certain limits, must close its doors. If the rigid curriculum of the weak college is to become the standard, then the progress of science and civilization as represented in expanding and many-sided university courses, no longer touches the life of the undergraduate. But if uniform requirements for degrees mean, that after a student has entered the freshman class of any reputable institution, he must, for a bachelor's degree, spend substantially the same time (three or four years) pursuing liberal, but not highly specialized studies arranged in logically correlated groups and having somewhat definite values, it seems reasonable to advocate it.

It is not only desirable but practicable, for in spite of the diversity, there is a substantial consensus of opinion throughout the land concerning the quantity and quality of work deserving academic recognition. A commission of educators representing different sections and the various classes of institutions would surely sub-

mit standards that would obtain general recognition and respect.

It will be readily admitted that the adoption of a standard would be much easier than its maintenance; since greed of gain and local pride have founded many institutions which offer deplorably inadequate facilities; and ambition without honesty leads many would-be graduates to seek degrees by short-cuts and doubtful methods. The question then arises: How shall the standards, if adopted, be enforced? The answer is short, although the elaboration of the plan may not be easy. No degree can issue except by authority conferred by the State. If the State has the right to say what institutions may confer degrees, it has the same right to regulate the manner of conferring, and the duty to protect the conforming institutions from the non-conforming, and to maintain the value of the degrees for those who worthily obtain them against those who seek the titular distinction without honorable effort implied.

This can be done by the State:

(1) By refusing charters until institutions show a minimum equipment and a minimum

permanent income, and a minimum teaching force. This minimum would necessarily vary in different States and would change from time to time.

(2) By so organizing the Department of Education that its duties shall include the careful inspection of all chartered institutions with power to suspend or revoke a charter for its abuse.

(3) By exempting from taxation, or by aiding, conforming institutions, and by granting certain privileges to their graduates.

Enlightened public opinion may in some instances rebuke and restrain transgressors against scholastic honesty, but the strong arm of the State is necessary to accomplish adequate results.

That the State has ample authority can hardly be questioned when New York and Pennsylvania are actually exercising it, and all the States in some measure regulate and protect professional degrees.

Chancellor Kirkland, of Vanderbilt University, at the Memphis meeting of the Southern Association, 1899, in an admirable paper on

Requirements for Degrees

"The Duty of the State towards Higher Education," said:

> "The State is a party in the conferring of every degree; it puts its approval and blessings on every person sent out into the world with such a seal. The right to confer degrees belongs to no individual or group of individuals. It cannot be acquired save from one source, and that source is the State. To this extent, then, the State is in partnership with every college and university. This partnership puts on the State definite duties and responsibilities. Unfortunately the State has regarded too highly its obligation. A degree is a piece of property with definite tangible valuation. * * * While a degree in arts is no longer interpreted as a license to teach, it has acquired new significance as the badge of an educated man, a mark of culture and scholarship. It admits to a nobility, a peerage, a historic aristocracy. The value attached to a degree depends on the conditions of its attainment. If degrees could be bought, they would be worthless. If they were given for the completion of elementary courses in grammar, arithmetic,

etc., they would be no longer sought after. It is highly desirable, then, that there should be an admitted uniformity of standard among all degree-conferring institutions, to the end that a definite value may attach in public estimation to the degrees conferred. * * * To our colleges and universities this matter is of the utmost importance. They can give no honor or distinction greater than their degrees. This is the culminating point in their activity. They must preserve the high character of their degrees or their whole work falls to the ground. * * * And yet our best institutions are powerless to prevent the abuse of collegiate degrees. The very value of these rewards makes them eagerly sought by the unworthy and sold or given away by the unprincipled on an unworthy basis. It is not enough to say that the worthless institution will in time be recognized or the pretentious impostors, even though they bear degrees, will be discovered. There should be some way to prevent the damage, to correct the evil before it is too late. * * * The State is a partner with every

degree-conferring institution, and ought not to be always a silent partner. It should require regular reports of official business, and should see to it that the good name of the firm is preserved. In allowing degrees to be conferred the State bestows a piece of property, sacred and inviolable, so far as outward violence is concerned but it allows all that is of worth in that property to be destroyed by the reckless conduct of fraudulent imposters or indifferent pretenders."

This long quotation is amply justified by its force and pertinency.

Dr. Henry Wade Rogers, President of Northwestern University, in an address before the National Association in 1897 used the following forcible language:

"The cause of professional as well as of academic education suffers from the want of adequate State supervision. We have in this country, schools of law, medicine, dentistry and pharmacy that appear to be organized and conducted for the purpose of making money. * * * The shorter the course of study, the cheaper the class of teachers; the less ex-

pended for books and apparatus, and the easier it is made to be admitted and graduated, the greater the number of students becomes and the larger the amount of dividends paid. Men who make merchandise of professional education have low professional and scholastic ideals. They are inclined to receive all students who apply, without much regard to previous preparation or moral character. They allow these students to continue without being concerned greatly as to the manner in which they apply themselves to study. They graduate them after an attendance for the allotted period, without scrutinizing too closely the extent of their ignorance, and confer a degree which in theory is supposed to stand for high attainments. This sort of thing, impossible in Europe, should be made impossible in America. Such a condition of affairs is demoralizing beyond question. It destroys the value of degrees. It imposes on the public a class of educational charlatans, and works injury to the students whom it falsely pretends to educate. There should be no hesitancy in declaring that the interests of education, and, there-

fore, the interest of the public, require, that when the State does not exercise a power of supervision and does not establish a minimum standard of admission and graduation, it should withhold from every stock-company the power of conferring degrees.

State supervision justifying state recognition of diplomas must be a supervision that extends impartially over all degree-conferring institutions of the State, and which is exercised by prescribing standards and by seeing that those standards are honestly conformed to. Special privileges based on supervision that extends to less than the whole, no state should think of granting. * * *

But there is no good reason why diplomas may not be accepted in lieu of examinations in states which really exercise supervision over the degree-conferring institutions. It would, however, be most unjust and unworthy to accord to the diplomas issued by a state university any special privileges simply because it is an institution under state control, and any attempt of that kind might very properly arouse resentment to the prejudice of the institution

concerned. There might be, in the same state, institutions under private control doing as good, if not better, work. To attach to the diplomas of the state university, because of its state character, any special privileges would manifestly be unfair, and the thought of it ought not to be entertained."

The last quarter of the nineteenth century has shown marvelous educational progress. Some important problems have been solved, but many, equally important, still await solution. Of these unsolved problems the one under consideration, "Uniform Requirements for Degrees," is bequeathed for final settlement to the twentieth century. It is not, however, presumptuous to predict, judging from the present agitation, that the next decade will give a practical answer to this momentous question.

As the Federal government exercises no control over education in the States, action must be taken by the several States. Genuine interest in the real welfare of their respective States should cause the friends of State institutions and of the denominational colleges to rise above local prejudice and petty jealousies, and unite

to accomplish a masterly piece of statesmanship. Who would betray his innate listlessness and lack of progressiveness by opposing a movement that promises so much? Right direction may be given to the movement, if State Teachers' Associations would adopt resolutions similar to the following:

Whereas (1) the educational forces of our State by heartier co-operation may largely enhance their usefulness and thus promote the general welfare of the State, and

Whereas (2) the tendency of educational progress is toward uniformity of entrance and graduation requirements, and the proper supervision to maintain standards; therefore, Be it resolved,

(I) That a Commission be organized consisting of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction, two representatives (to be elected by the respective faculties) of each institution chartered as college or university, which desires representation, one representative of each entirely private academy which desires representation, and ten public high school men to be selected by the State Superintendent;

Uniformity

(II) That this Commission be called to meet at the State capital, by the State Superintendent, who shall be *ex-officio* chairman, during the month next preceding the regular legislative session, to formulate a law for the re-organization of the Department of Public Instruction for the purpose of regulating degrees and supervising higher education.

(III) That the Commission be requested to appoint a committee of five to present the law and to memoralize the next Legislature with the understanding that the committee shall have the full support of the State Association*

*These resolutions were adopted by the Arkansas State Teachers' Association, June 29, 1900.

CHAPTER XII.

VISIONS AND DREAMS.

The twentieth century will see:

1. Church and State with mutual respect co-operating more fully in higher educational work.

2. Each influential church systematizing its educational enterprises.

3. A few strong universities without undergraduate departments.

4. The thorough re-organization of the undergraduate department by such universities as retain it.

5. The recognition of the true province of the college and its limitation to that province.

6. The strengthening of the public high school and the private academy, and their rapid multiplication.

7. A more perfect adjustment of high school and academy to the college.

8. Closer State supervision of higher education with enhanced value of all degrees.

9. Issuance of State certificates to teachers for work done in institutions properly supervised.

10. College culture made more serviceable.

11. Commercial education refined and broadened.

12. Manual training, domestic science, elementary agriculture, and physical culture in every good public school.

13. More thorough preparation for admission to all professional schools.

14. Professionally trained teachers in every school.

15. Universities open all the year.

16. Free public libraries in every strong community.

17. Liberal and popular taxation for education of all grades.

18. General compulsory attendance in free schools.

19. Abolition of illiteracy.

20. The consecration of vast wealth to educational endeavor.

TABLE SHOWING THE WONDERFUL PROGRESS SOME OF THE COLLEGES HAVE MADE SINCE THEIR FOUNDATION.

	FOUNDED	STATE	CONTROLLED	INSTRUCTORS	STUDENTS	GRADUATES	LIBRARY VOLUMES	PRODUCTIVE FUNDS	ANNUAL INCOME
Boston University	1869	Mass.	Meth.	141	1,376	4,162		950,000	237,491
Columbia "	1754	N. Y.	Nonsect.	339	2,208	16,483	275,000	9,500,000	854,326
Cornell "	1868	N. Y.	"	248	2,543	5,167	225,000	6,467,482	687,908
Harvard "	1636	Mass.	"	442	4,067	22,781	525,000	11,766,371	1,234,740
Johns Hopkins "	1876	Md.	"	126	650	1,087	90,000	3,000,000	
Leland Stanford "	1887	Calif.	"	115	1,153	952	44,694	10,000,000	250,000
New York "	1831	N. Y.	"	148	1,785	15,325	49,945	2,239,859	595,768
Northwestern "	1851	Ill.	Meth.	222	2,019	5,716	38,582	2,465,827	275,300
Ohio State "	1804	Ohio	State	114	1,125	972	28,842	552,617	277,593
Ohio Wesleyan "	1844	Ohio	Meth.	94	1,315	2,671	35,000	1,080,631	57,106
Princeton "	1746	N. J.	Nonsect.	85	1,100	3,916	140,000	1,477,000	105,000
Tulane "	1884	La.	"	77	970	4,881	25,000	2,843,000	485,175
University of California	1868	Calif.	State	301	2,525	3,774	79,000	2,818,748	552,000
" " Chicago	1890	Ill.	Baptist	235	2,959	1,950	340,000	7,000,000	723,083
" " Illinois	1867	Ill.	State	252	2,250	3,573	50,000	475,444	379,294

	FOUNDED	STATE	CONTROLLED	INSTRUCTORS	STUDENTS	GRADUATES	LIBRARY VOLUMES	PRODUCTIVE FUNDS	ANNUAL INCOME
University of Kansas	1864	Kan.	State	70	1,087	1,610	31,000	142,000	175,500
" " Mich.	1837	Mich.	"	197	3,192	16,169	133,206	748,000	533,524
" " Minn.	1851	Minn.	"	245	3,200	2,887	62,000	1,325,000	398,117
" " Mo.	1839	Mo.	"	70	1,086	2,103	30,000	1,234,819	176,821
" " Neb.	1869	Neb.	"	229	1,946	1,235	41,000	175,000	287,000
" " Penn.	1740	Penn.	"	264	2,641	18,401	150,000	2,935,459	1,082,145
" " Texas	1881	Texas	"	83	800	800	3,500	600,000	150,000
" " Virginia	1819	Va.	"	47	645		47,728	365,600	133,000
" " Wisc.	1849	Wis.	"	125	1,923	4,007	55,000	525,000	426,663
Vanderbilt University	1873	Tenn.	S. Meth.	90	766	3,600	18,000	1,200,000	100,000
Wesleyan "	1831	Conn.	Meth.	36	335	2,122	55,000	1,272,247	94,559
Western Reserve "	1882	Ohio	Cong.	147	800	1,500	52,000	1,145,000	263,080
West Virginia "	1867	W. Va.	State	63	1,000	634	14,000	115,000	147,000
Yale "	1700	Conn.	Cong.	275	2,700	19,000	300,000	5,000,000	800,000

1886-7 INSTITUTION	CONTROL	ORGANIZED	PREPARATORY DEPARTMENT		COLLEGIATE DEPARTMENT		VOLUMES IN LIBRARY	VALUE OF GROUNDS, BUILDINGS AND APPARATUS	PRODUCTIVE FUNDS	INCOME
			INSTRUCT'S	STUDENTS	INSTRUCT'S	STUDENTS				
Albion	Meth.	1861	9	200	10	213	5,000	$ 100,000	$ 175 ·00	23,100
Amherst	Cong.	1821			27	331	40,000	400,000	1,000,000	74,080
Beloit	"	1847		207	15	58		120,000	200,000	56,'75
Bowdoin	"	1802			14	137	35,000		388,000	32,400
Central	S. Meth.	1857	2	77	8	53	4,300	100,000	110,000	13,800
Emory	"	1837	2	59	15	150	5,000	100,000	125,000	
Hamilton	Pres.	1812			13	174	20,000	500,000	280,000	
Haverford	Friend.	1833			14	95	12,000	200,000	200,000	54,000
Hobart	Epis.	1824			10	73	18,000	132,350	282,383	23,000
Iowa	Cong.	1848	3	140	13	187	12,225	127,000	172,000	20,000
Middlebury		1801			8	63	16,000	100,000	145,000	12,702
Oberlin	Cong.	1833		477	24	441	17,000	250,000	450,000	70,000
Randolph Macon	S. Meth.	1832			8	109	4,000	80,000	100,000	11,000
Richmond	Bap.	1832			8	150	9,000	400,000	175,000	18,000
S. Western	S. Meth.	1873	4	142	13	221		65,000		
Trinity	"	1852			6	122	400	30,000		5,680
Wabash	Pres.	1833	3	116	11	125	23,000	250,000	175,000	16,500
Wake Forest	Bap.	1834			9	201	9,000	60.000	168,000	19,500

1897-8 INSTITUTION	STATE	PREPARATORY DEPARTMENT		COLLEGIATE DEHARTMENT		VOLUMS IV LIBRARY	VALUE OF GROUNDS, BUILDINGS AND APPARATUS	PRODUCTIVE FUNDS	INCOME
		INSTRUCT'S	STUDENTS	INSTRUCT'S	STUDENTS				
Albion	Michigan	6	169	28	200	11,600	$ 95,000	$ 208,000	$ 31,250
Amherst	Massachusetts			34	369	68,000	1,000,000	1,400,000	100,000
Beloit	Wisconsin	6	223	16	206	24.000	410,000	419,000	27,490
Bowdoin	Maine			21	243	63,000	525,000	630,000	55,500
Central	Missouri	5	99	8	60	5,500	155,000	130,000	11.450
Emory	Georgia	3	38	11	210	20,000	135,000	180,000	21,000
Hamilton	New York			18	155	37,000	520,000	400,000	32,200
Haverford	Pennsylvania			18	110	32,200	480,000	700,000	63,300
Hobart	New York			13	92	35,333	187,000	365,000	10,700
Iowa	Iowa	11	173	23	261	24,000	160,000	400,000	48,000
Middlebury	Vermont			11	108	23,000	104,000	380,000	24,275
Oberlin	Ohio	19	414	27	424	49,630	1,615,200	993,463	118,697
Randolph Macon	Virginia			10	103	10,000	119,000	125,000	15,000
Richmond	Virginia			14	219	13.000	404,000	270,000	30,700
S. Western	Texas	3	107	7	228	5,000	85,500		18,400
Trinity	North Carolina			14	155	15,000	240,000	225,000	23,600
Wabash	Indiana	5	76	15	124	34,000	275,000	450,000	36,000
Wake Forest	North Carolina			13	224	14.000	85,000	205.442	24,000

Our Own
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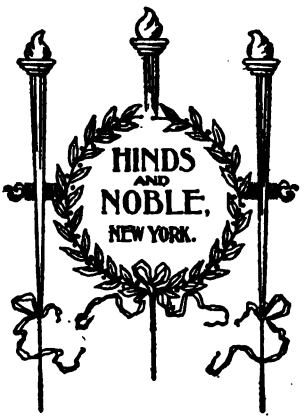

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